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CLASSICS OF AMERICAN LIBRARIANSHIP

THE LIBRARY AND ITS ORGANIZATION

Classics of American Librarianship

Edited by Arthur E. Bostwick, Ph.D.

The Relationship between the Library and the Public Schools. *By Arthur E. Bostwick, Ph. D.*

Library Work with Children. *By Alice I. Hazeltine.*

The Library and Society. *By Arthur E. Bostwick, Ph. D.*

The Library and Its Organization. *By Gertrude Gilbert Drury.*

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The Library as a Vocation. *By Harriet Price Sawyer.*

Classics of American Librarianship
Edited by ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK, Ph. D.

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Library Science

THE LIBRARY AND ITS ORGANIZATION

REPRINTS OF ARTICLES AND ADDRESSES

SELECTED AND ANNOTATED BY
GERTRUDE GILBERT DRURY
Chief Instructor, St. Louis Library School

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PREFACE

This fourth volume in the series of Classics of American Librarianship is devoted to general library organization and administration. In surveying the field one finds many forms of organization. The principle followed in selecting the articles in accordance with the purpose of the series, has been to choose the typical forms, or those which have played a definite part in library development and progress, rather than the erratic or spectacular.

The arrangement of the groups recognizes the preeminence of the public library and includes the national library, national and state organizations, the college library and special libraries.

GERTRUDE GILBERT DRURY.

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THE LIBRARY AND ITS ORGANIZATION

PRECURSORS OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

The most important forms of library organization preceding the public library were two; that maintained as one of the varied activities of a society or foundation and available only to the members or stock holders in it; and that organized as an association for the purpose of maintaining library service, membership in which was practically open to all who paid the fee or helped to support it. Proprietary, subscription, mercantile and society libraries are terms variously used in application to these.

In the early attempts to extend library privileges to the general public, school libraries organized under special laws were also utilized and in some states were the only supplies of reading furnished for many years.

Benjamin Franklin is known as the founder of the first subscription library. He says in his autobiography:

> About this time, our club meeting, not at a tavern, but in a little room of Mr. Grace's, set apart for that purpose, a proposition was made by me, that, since our books were often referr'd to in our disquisitions upon the queries, it might be convenient to us to have them altogether where we met, that upon occasion they might be consulted; and by thus clubbing our books to a common library, we should, while we lik'd to keep them together, have each of us the advantage of using the books of all the other members, which would be nearly as beneficial as if each owned the whole. It was lik'd and agreed to, and we filled one end of the room with such books as we could best spare. The number was not so great as we expected; and tho' they had been of great use, yet some inconveniences occurring for want of due care of them, the collection, after about a year, was separated and each took his books home again.
>
> And now I set on foot my first project of a public nature, that for a subscription library. I drew up the proposals, got them put into form by our great scrivener, Brockden, and by

the help of my friends in the Junto, procured fifty subscribers of forty shillings each to begin with, and ten shillings a year for fifty years, the term our company was to continue. We afterwards obtain'd a charter, the company being increased to one hundred: this was the mother of all the North American subscription libraries, now so numerous. It is become a great thing itself, and continually increasing. These libraries have improved the general conversation of the Americans, made the common tradesmen and farmers as intelligent as most gentlemen from other countries, and perhaps have contributed in some degree to the stand so generally made throughout the colonies in defense of their privileges.

PROPRIETARY LIBRARIES AND THEIR RELATION TO PUBLIC LIBRARIES

As a forerunner of the public library, the subscription library rendered a valuable service. Mr. Charles Ammi Cutter briefly surveys the situation that existed before public libraries had occupied the field.

Mr. Cutter was born in Boston, Mass., 1837, and graduated at Harvard in 1855, and from its Divinity school in 1859, serving as librarian of the latter in 1858-59. Early in 1860 he became an assistant in the Harvard College library, and eight years later he was elected librarian of the Boston Athenæum, where he remained until 1893. For the last ten years of his life, he served as librarian of the Forbes Library, Northampton, Mass.

In 1875, he prepared the "Rules for a dictionary catalogue" in the special report on public libraries issued by the Bureau of Education in 1876. The "Expansive classification" and the "Alphabetical-order tables" were published while he was at Northampton.

Mr. Cutter, as president, presided over two conventions of the American Library Association, and served as honorary vice-president of the International Library Conference, London, 1897.

By a "proprietary library" is here meant one that is owned in shares by a limited number of stockholders, the association having been formed for the sake of creating a general library. This excludes Odd Fellows' Libraries, Social Law Libraries, Young Men's Christian Association Libraries, which are merely adjuncts to an association, and libraries formed for the special study of their own branch of knowledge by scientific bodies, which can conviently be called Society Libraries. Here and there you may find one, like the Boston Athenæum, in which the library was not the main object of the foundation, but has

gradually absorbed all the life of the institution, which is now kept up solely or mainly for the sake of the books. These are properly included.

In this country the Proprietary Library was the parent of the Public Library, and as is said to be the custom among some savage tribes the son when grown up has devoured his father.

Our ancestors organized library societies in which the shares ranged from $5 to $300, and the annual dues for the borrowing of books from $1 to $5. The Redwood was the first, in 1730; Franklin's foundation at Philadelphia was the most noted.

In all the laws previous to 1849 where the term "public library" is used proprietary libraries and society libraries are meant; there were no others. They spread over the country rapidly, considering its sparse population and its poverty. Of those which in 1875 numbered ten thousand volumes five were established in the last century, ten in the first quarter of this and eighteen in the second quarter. Then our state laws for the maintenance of libraries by taxation began to be passed; but the service which proprietary libraries could render was by no means over, and the new libraries of that kind founded between 1850 and 1875 would not compare unfavorably in number with those of the previous quarters.

In the second period, after the public library is established, a very different fate awaits the proprietary library according as it is endowed or not endowed. If it is endowed the two become friendly rivals, dividing the work of supplying the book needs of the city. The public library at first aims to provide chiefly for the uneducated and the partly educated. It is crowded and unpleasant to frequent. The proprietary library is able to pay more attention to the special studies of the scholars among its proprietors, it can give them more personal attention, and it is for other reasons more agreeable to the fastidious. Neither has any motive to wish ill to the other, or in any way to oppose it. In a poor city it would not be hard for a public library to "freeze out" an unendowed proprietary library. It has only to offer a larger supply of equally good books; to be cordial and obliging to every one; to have long hours and comfortable reading-rooms; to admit a selected number of scholars to the greater part of the shelves. If it does these things its competitor will soon find itself with empty rooms and an empty treasury.

The main advantage of a proprietary over a public library is that it can grant to its shareholders absolutely free access to the shelves. To a student and a booklover this alone is well worth the price of admission.

But some losses should be expected and considered as the price which it is worth while to pay for the immense advantage of the privilege; the most valuable books should not be so freely accessible; and where objection is made it should be clearly explained that the choice is not between the browsing of all and the browsing of some, but between the exclusion of all and the admission of some.

What then is the role of the proprietary library in the future? Has it any work to do in the library scheme? The sketch which has been given of its history shows that it has. In states without a library law it must in the future as in the past do the work of the free library. It must supply reading to at least that portion of the community which can afford to pay for reading; it must kindle the desire in as many others as possible; it must make all those local collections which a town library ought to make; it must attract to itself gifts and legacies so as to be ready, when the state finally passes a library law, to serve either as a nucleus or a succursal to the public library.

The proprietary library performs some of the work of a branch of the city library without costing the city anything. And each library gives the other that gentle stimulus to the performance of good work which only the presence of a competitor can supply.

THE BOSTON ATHENAEUM

One of the most noted survivors of the proprietary library is the Boston Athenæum. Its organization and early history are described by Charles Ammi Cutter, its librarian, for the special report on Public Libraries in the United States, published by the United States Bureau of Education in 1876, and his contribution is used here as an example of that form of library service.

Mr. Quincy, the historian of the Boston Athenæum, (from whose work almost the whole of this short memorandum is derived,) dates its first suggestion on October 23, 1805, when the members of the Anthology Society voted "that a library of periodical publications be instituted for the use of the society." In the following May it was decided to make this library, which had meanwhile increased encouragingly, the basis of a public reading room; and such a reading room was accordingly opened. Not long afterward arrangements were made to permit the incorporation of the institution. On January 1, 1807, the trustees (Theophilus Parsons, John Davis, John Powell, William Emerson, J. T. Kirkland, P. Thacher, A. M. Walter, W. S. Shaw, R. H. Gardiner, J. S. Buckminster, O. Rich) issued an announcement that the rooms were opened for use, in Joy's building, Congress Street. The name used in this paper was Anthology Reading Room and Library. In February of the same year the trustees were incorporated as the Proprietors of the Boston Athenæum, and as such they organized April 7, 1807.

It is characteristic of what has always been and is still the purpose of the Athenæum, that in a "Memoir" of the Athenæum which was circulated in order to obtain subscriptions at this time, the reading room was described as being "the *first* department" of the Athenæum, and the library as "the *next* branch." As was the case with many of our libraries dating from the first half of the century, several collateral departments were added to the design; in this instance a museum or cabinet of natural objects,

curiosities, antiques, coins, etc.; a "repository of art," both industrial and æsthetic; and a laboratory and observatory.

The premises first occupied by the Athenæum were in Scollay's building, between Tremont and Court streets. In 1809 the trustees bought a house in Tremont street, to which the collections were removed and the rooms opened for use in July of that year. In 1809, a catalogue, prepared by Rev. Joseph McKean, was printed, but not published, interleaved copies being used in the library for nearly twenty years.

When John Quincy Adams went as minister to Russia he deposited his own library in the Athenæum for the use of the proprietors, thus nearly doubling the size of the collection for the time, as his books were about 5,450 in number, and those of the library about 5,750. In 1814 the library itself had increased to 8,209 volumes. In April, 1817, the American Academy of Arts and Sciences deposited its books with the Athenæum, under the terms of an agreement between the two corporations providing for the proper separate accommodation and joint use of the collections. In 1820 the number of books had increased to 12,647, and the whole number available for the use of the proprietors and subscribers was nearly 20,000. In 1822 Mr. James Perkins, who had been one of the trustees and vice-president of the Athenæum, gave it his own dwelling house and land in Pearl Street, worth then not less than $20,000; and in June of that year the collections of the institution were removed to its own newly acquired building. This gift is properly described by Mr. Quincy as "timely, munificent, and decisive in stamping it [the Athenæum] with the character of a permanent public institution."

In the summer of 1823 two other collections of books were deposited in the Athenæum on terms somewhat similar to those in the case of the Academy of Arts and Sciences, namely, the Library of King's Chapel and the theological library belonging to the Boston Association of Ministers. In January, 1824, the Athenæum Library consisted of 14,820 books.

In 1826 Mr. Thomas H. Perkins and Mr. James Perkins, the brother and son of Mr. James Perkins already mentioned, each offered the Athenæum $8,000 conditioned on the gift of an equal amount by other citizens. This was raised, and the money was used in building a lecture room, and in enlarging the collections of the library. During this year the books of the Boston Medi-

cal Library, more than 2,000 in number, were added to the Athenæum Library; and the Boston Scientific Association, uniting with the Athenæum, handed over to it a fund of over $3,000, which, with other sums raised for the purpose, afforded the means of placing its scientific department on a very creditable footing. In November of that year a curious agreement was made between the Athenæum and the Rev. J. B. Felt, administrator of the estate of Mr. W. S. Shaw, long the librarian of the Athenæum. Mr. Shaw had for many years been in the habit of buying books, coins, and other property in such a way that it was impossible to tell whether it was done with his own money or with that of the Athenæum. Though a shrewd, zealous, and successful collector, and thoroughly devoted to the Athenæum, he was far from being a careful accountant, and so thoroughly mixed up were the two properties at his death that Mr. Felt, as administrator, and the Athenæum executed a formal release to each other; Mr. Felt thus generously surrendering not only a large number of valuable books, pamphlets, coins, and other articles whose precise ownership might have been doubtful, but a considerable number to which he might easily have proved a claim.

At the beginning of 1828 the number of volumes in the library was 21,945; and besides the use of the books on its own premises, their circulation among the proprietors, first permitted in the year 1827, amounted during 1829 to 4000 volumes.

From this time forward the history of the Athenæum has been little more than a quiet and steady progress in extent and usefulness. In 1839 it began to be evident that the Pearl Street neighborhood was becoming too exclusively a business one to be proper for the best success of the Athenæum, and after various difficulties and negotiations a site in Beacon Street was obtained, the present edifice erected, (costing about $200,000,) the library and other collections removed to it and opened for use in the year 1849.

The extent of the library is now about 105,000 volumes, and its executive staff numbers about twelve persons. Its increase during 1875 was 3,729 volumes, and the extent of its use is estimated at 33,000 volumes a year. Its use is confined to those owning shares or admitted under various agreements, or by votes of the trustees, so that it is strictly a proprietary library. It is, however, conducted in a liberal manner, and with courtesy

to all applicants. The real estate, library, and fine art collections of the Athenæum are now estimated to be worth about $400,000, and its other property, the income of which is used for the current expenses, at about $250,000.

THE PROPRIETARY LIBRARY IN RELATION TO THE PUBLIC LIBRARY MOVEMENT

The possible future of this form of library organization was discussed at a Round Table meeting at the Narraganset Pier Conference of the A. L. A. in 1906.—During this discussion William I. Fletcher of the Amherst College Library stated his belief that the public library movement had received important contributions from the subscription library, and that the latter may still render a service and be a convenience to its patron, beyond what the public library can do and be. A sketch of Mr. Fletcher will be found in Volume 2.

In speaking of the "proprietary library" one must have it understood what is meant by the term. It is quite common to speak of "semi-public" libraries, meaning those which are to some extent open to the public, but are not entitled to be called free public libraries. This designation of "semi-public" may be applied to a great variety of institutions. I suppose college, university and school libraries would properly come under that heading. Of the semi-public libraries, which then are to be called "proprietary"? There are first those belonging to clubs; but perhaps these would hardly be called even semi-public. Then there are those owned by corporations or stock companies and used by the shareholders. Of this class the Boston Athenæum is probably the most characteristic example. Most such libraries are recognized as semi-public for two reasons: (1) their regular constituency constitutes a considerable public by itself, and (2) they generally make it possible for a share of the general public to use their books at least on the premises.

Then we have the association library, of which the best known examples are the "mercantile" libraries once found in nearly every city, but now almost extinct under that name, that of New York City being one notable example of persistence. The Mercantile Library flourished in Boston alongside of the

Athenæum, but found it impossible to maintain itself as against the Public Library when that was fairly started.

Another class of semi-public libraries are those known as Institute Libraries, often as Young Men's Institutes. These were very common a generation ago in the smaller cities and larger towns, being nearly identical in character and methods with the "mercantile" libraries of the larger cities. The field occupied and the methods employed by the Young Men's Institutes were those now pertaining to the Young Men's Christian Association, except that the Institutes gave more attention to the library and less to other means of culture. But the Young Men's Christian Association libraries of today constitute a large and important section of the semi-public libraries.

There is still another class of libraries, which should be counted as semi-public, namely, those public libraries which, while freely used by the public and in most cases subsidized by the city or town, remain the property of a corporation or association and are managed by it. The City Library of Springfield is perhaps the most notable example of this kind of library in Massachusetts. The Berkshire Athenæum of Pittsfield, the Westfield Athenæum, the public libraries of Amherst, Easthampton, and many other towns are of this sort. These libraries generally have a governing board made up in part of representatives of the city or town, the appropriation of public money being supposed to carry with it the right of representation on the board of management.

All these varieties of libraries shading off from the club library to the free public library, in which the actual ownership is not vested in the city or town, but in the corporation or society, might properly enough be brought under the term proprietary libraries. But as the last of the class mentioned comprise libraries commonly included as "free public," I shall restrict the term "proprietary libraries" to those the use of which is not free to the public but is enjoyed only by the shareholders or members or by those specially introduced by them—that is, to those libraries whose use, as well as ownership, is mainly restricted to the "proprietors."

The relations of these proprietary libraries to the public library of the last fifty years may be properly indicated as three—the historically antecedent, the parental, the concurrent. As to the first of these relations little need be said. This is not the

place for a historical sketch of the proprietary library movement in itself. Beginning with the inception by Benjamin Franklin and his associates, in 1732, of what later became the Philadelphia Library Co., "mother of all the subscription libraries in North America," as Franklin called it, this movement made considerable progress before the Revolution, was checked by that era of uncertainty and poverty, and then spread with remarkable rapidity over nearly the whole country in the years from 1785-1820.

The extent of that growth is realized by few who have not looked into the matter. It would seem that few towns of any size in the northern part of the country failed to organize a public library of this sort during that period, while the southern states were not far behind in the matter, and many of even the smallest towns were included. It is evident that a most valuable and interesting chapter of library history remains unwritten, and it is to be hoped that it will be fairly well covered in the series of library histories now being issued by the Library of Congress.

But I have proposed to treat in the second place of the parental relations of the proprietary library to the free public library of today. Without a larger opportunity for research than I have had one must be cautious in tracing these relations, for the *post hoc propter hoc* fallacy is very apt to lead one astray when inquiring into such matters.

It certainly is true that many of our free public libraries are the direct outgrowth of antecendent proprietary ones. There are cases of all degrees of parenthood. At one extreme we have a proprietary library with a good collection of books, a building of its own and endowments for maintenance, all turned over to the town or city on condition of continued support as a free library. At the other end of the scale we behold a small and struggling library association welcoming the opportunity to turn over its few books to the free library which is being started by a popular movement and thus to terminate its own existence. Between these extremes there are cases as various as they are numerous. Take them all in all, it would have to be admitted that a very large share of all the free public libraries were the direct outgrowth of the proprietary ones and a moment's thought will convince one that in this way the free library system of today is vastly indebted to those who, often very persistently and

in the face of difficulties, and at serious financial cost to themselves, laid these foundations.

But apart from this direct contribution of foundations for the free library structure, the proprietary libraries have done much to prepare the way for the modern system. The breadth and catholicity of view displayed by the founders of these early institutions, the public spirit animating their actions, are very apparent in the constitutions and other documents of these libraries. The address to the public, printed in the *Connecticut Courant,* of Hartford, March 1, 1774, in behalf of a proposed subscription library, began as follows: "The utility of public libraries, consisting of well chosen books under proper regulation, and their smiling aspect on the interests of Society, Virtue and Religion are too manifest to be denied." This passage, so far in its spirit from that of narrow or personal advantage, will be found to be the keynote of the whole subscription library movement, which was thus closely akin in motive and aim to the free library movement of a hundred years later.

This public aspect of the subscription libraries was recognized by legislation which in most of the states exempted them and their buildings from taxation, and appears also in the fact that they were often the recipients of endowment funds given with a view to forward public interests.

Perhaps it was one important contribution of the subscription library to the library movement that it demonstrated the need of something more than it could supply. Most of these subscription libraries, it must be confessed, died out; only a minority endured until they could be merged in a nascent free library. But those that perished had in the first place created some public interest in the movement and then proved disappointing as a means of meeting the real needs of their communities. In these various ways the proprietary libraries were vitally related to the public library movement.

The remaining division of my subject is the concurrent existence of the proprietary library alongside of the free public. Generally speaking the proprietary libraries have "gone out of business" on, or soon after, the advent of the free public library, in most cases, as has already been said, forming its nucleus and foundation.

Those which have survived and bid fair to live permanently are mostly in large cities, notable examples being the Athenæum

and the Boston Society Library in Boston, the Athenæum in Providence, the Mercantile Library and Society Library in New York, and the Philadelphia Library Company. Some of these institutions flourish but feebly under the shadow of the powerful and growing free library, while others seem to have found a place and mission of their own and are even regarded by their friends as having gained rather than lost by the competition. In 1861 the Boston Athenæum seemed to be suffering seriously from the rivalry of the public library. Its shares, with a par value of $300, sold as low as $49, in at least one instance within my memory. But that was the low water mark, the tide soon turned, interest in the special advantages of the Athenæum increased rapidly, and the selling price of the shares rose until in 1866 it was above $150, and if I am not misinformed has since reached the par value of $300; and it should be noted that when this stock was issued at that price most of those who took it did so to aid in the foundation, and but few would have considered a share really worth that amount, while the prices paid recently represent an estimate of their real value to the owner. The price of shares must be taken as a sure index of the estimate placed upon the institution by a portion of the public. But in this library and in others in various parts of the country one will find every evidence of vigorous life, efficient and up-to-date administration, and a large and well pleased *clientèle.*

Where the proprietary libraries languish in the race, it may be for one of several reasons, as *e.g.,* a lack of independent resources in the way of endowments, a meagre population, or one lacking in the scholarly and leisure elements, or in wealth, a failure to adjust the administration to new conditions, resulting in making the library unattractive and inefficient as compared with the free public library where modern ideas and methods are apt to prevail.

One may well believe that with the growth of our cities and large towns, in population, in wealth, and in culture, that which has proved true of the Boston Athenæum will be true of proprietary libraries in general, and that they will enter on a future of enlarged prosperity and usefulness. I may naturally be expected to indicate somewhat more particularly what is the substantial basis of prosperity and usefulness of these proprietary libraries alongside of the free public libraries. It is certainly not difficult to believe that in a well conducted library of this

kind privileges and conveniences can be afforded to patrons that cannot be given to the general public in the free library. Apparently it is hopeless for any other library to rival the public in the number of volumes. On the other hand, the number of borrowers and the consequent difficulty in getting a desired book goes far to offset the superiority in number of works purchased.

Again, the public library is for all, and must attempt to meet all demands, while the proprietary library, with its smaller and select constituency, is likely to have a smaller range of demands to meet, and may excel in some branches of literature.

When one undertakes to enumerate the special privileges that the proprietor has in a proprietary library, one is likely to find it difficult to make any extended list that is not paralleled in the free library practice of today. With the rather rigid rules and mechanical methods which were thought, a generation ago, to be essential to free library management, the public libraries compared much more unfavorably, in point of freedom of access and use, with the proprietary libraries than they do now. And one thing that has kept the latter behind in the race has been the slowness with which they have waked up to the modern library spirit and method.

There will always be those who object to proprietary libraries, as to private schools, on political and social grounds, charging against both a tendency to foster class distinctions in the community.

Dr. Gilman, of Cambridge, has made a fine plea for the private school in a democracy in which he speaks of the strong movement made in Massachusetts some 20 years ago to discredit private school education, and indicates that there has been a reaction and that the private schools of the state now educate at least one-fifth of all the pupils.

Only under socialism could it be fairly claimed that education should be the same for all. As Dr. Gilman shows, if the state allows people of means to dress better than those who are poor, it will also allow them to provide themselves either individually or collectively with such education and such opportunities of culture as may suit them best. Unless the American people come to care less and less for the things of the spirit, it cannot be otherwise than that those who have means will combine in associations of one sort or another in which they can secure intellectual advantages not open to all. As nothing of this kind

that they can engage in is more likely to be in the end a public benefit than the establishment and maintenance of a public or semi-public library, we may well hope that such libraries will be increasingly prominent among the cultural institutions of the land.

When the librarians of America first met in council in 1853, I believe there was not among them one representing a free public library. Jewett, Poole, Lloyd Smith, Guild, and the others were from semi-public institutions. But they were the pioneers in the modern library movement. It is certainly incumbent now on those having in charge such libraries to see to it that all the facilities and more, all the freedom and more, all the "atmosphere" and more, of the free libraries are present in theirs, and to develop to the utmost the possibilities within their reach of making their libraries do some public service beyond that rendered by the free libraries. Such libraries should be, as they usually have been, favorite resorts of writers and of earnest readers, schools of the individual rather than of the crowd, ministering to the many by helping the few who will lead. Such a distinction is within their reach, and no one need be such a leveller in the interest of an abstract notion of equality as to do other than rejoice when the free public library has by its side a sister institution so well calculated to aid in forwarding the cause of human enlightenment.

THE MERCANTILE LIBRARY, NEW YORK

A somewhat different form of organization was that of the Mercantile library, the earliest example of which was the one in Boston, organized in 1820, which gave its books to the public library in 1877. The South End Branch was first housed in its building. A more typical example is the New York Mercantile Library, a description of which by O. C. Gardiner follows. This is part of his report on Public Libraries of New York City in the special report of the Bureau of Education for 1876.

O. C. Gardiner is probably Oliver Cromwell Gardiner, who was the author of "The Great Issue, or the Three Presidential Candidates" (New York and Boston, 1848) and "Sketch of the Life and Public Services of W. S. Hancock" (New York, 1880). The editors have been unable to find further information about him.

The first movement in behalf of a mercantile library was made by a number of public spirited merchants and other active business men late in the year 1820. Their efforts met with such success that in February, 1821, the association numbered one hundred and seventy-five active members and opened its library with about seven hundred volumes, which increased to one thousand within the year; and John Thompson, the first librarian, was employed at a salary of $150 per annum. In these early years of its history it was open only in the evening, and two directors were always in attendance. All the leading publishers of the city generously agreed to present copies of every work of merit they should issue.

In 1823 it was incorporated as the Mercantile Library Association, under the general law of 1796. In the same year it received from the Chamber of Commerce a gift of $250, and a committee of that body was appointed to report annually upon its condition. The library had grown in 1826 to 2,200 volumes, and the membership to 438. Such was its prosperity, and so

well had it fulfilled the hopes of its friends, that, at the end of two years, February 22, 1828, a meeting of prominent merchants was called, at which it was agreed to raise funds for a permanent library building. About $40,000 were subscribed, and a building at once begun at the southwest corner of Nassau and Beekman streets. As a means of greater protection to the library, the subscribers to this fund formed a separate association, and obtained from the legislature a charter under the title of The Clinton Hall Association of the City of New York, for the cultivation and promotion of literature, science, and art. This corporation was distinct from the Mercantile Library Association, but identical in purpose and object. It went into operation February 23, 1830. The object of the corporators was to hold in trust and manage all the property, real and personal, which the association might accumulate for the benefit of the library for all time, while the officers of the library should manage their own affairs, monetary and administrative, as a distinct organization.

The first book presented to the library was a History of England, the gift of De Witt Clinton, late the governor of the state, and, in memory and honor of this eminent statesman; the building was named Clinton Hall.

A covenant was made between the two associations, by which the library should always occupy its rooms free of rent, and, after paying the ordinary expenses and laying aside a contingent fund of $5,000 per annum from rents and income of Clinton Hall, the surplus should be invested in books for the library. It was further covenanted that the library should always be equally free to the members of both associations. Under this liberal covenant the Mercantile Library Association took possession of its rooms in Clinton Hall November 2, 1830, with 6,000 volumes and a membership of 1,200. During this year Columbia College granted perpetually to the library association two free scholarships. A like gratuity was awarded to the association by the University of the City of New York in 1845, and several of the scholars of these foundations have been graduated with special honors.

The library entered upon its second decade with marked prosperity. During this period courses of lectures, which had been established, were prosperous. Classes were also formed for the study of the French, German, and Spanish languages,

chemistry, drawing, and penmanship. Under the supervision of able professors these were largely beneficial to the members. Its members and volumes steadily increased, so that in 1840 the association numbered 3,652 active members, 278 stockholders in Clinton Hall, and the library 21,906 volumes.

The third decade, from 1840 to 1850, was not distinguished by any event of peculiar interest. The membership varied, but the library steadily increased in the number and in the value and character of its volumes. At the close of this period the public interest in the library and the general belief in the power of the institution to elevate and give a higher tone to the character of the future merchants of the city had been greatly strengthened. At or about this period there began an increased demand for a better class of books. It often exceeded the supply. Thirteen copies of Macaulay's History of England, nine of Layard's Nineveh, six each of Lynch's Expedition and Hawks' Monuments of Egypt did not supply a sixth of the demand. By this alliance and cooperation of the Clinton Hall Association with the library, the selection of its higher permanent class of books was perpetually delegated to a committee of older men. Their selections greatly enriched the library. They aimed in their choice to combine solid instruction with entertainment. Out of 2,500 volumes added in 1849, over 2000 were works of general literature, science, and art. Among these were the Sydenham and Ray Society publications, Philosophical Transactions, (in all, 55 volumes,) Burnet's Rembrandt and his works, and Landscape painting in oil colors, Pickering's Races of Men, and other similar works.

In entering on its fourth period, in 1850, it had about 3,500 members, and 33,539 volumes. The reading room was now receiving special attention, and had on its tables 131 daily, weekly, monthly, and quarterly journals, American and foreign.

The fourth period, from 1850 to 1860, began a new era in the history of the library. In the first year its circulation reached one hundred thousand volumes. The library had been entirely re-arranged in alphabetical order. Other important events in the history of the library followed. Clinton Hall was sold to the Nassau Bank for $100,000; its charter was amended to give it power to increase its capital. The Astor Place Opera House was purchased and remodeled for the use of the library at a cost of $250,000. So strong and deep was the interest of the mercantile community, that a subscription was raised sufficient

to reduce the entire debt to $75,000. The result of this change was a large increase of members. Among those who ten and fifteen years before had been its young and active members, were now found the enterprising and successful merchants of the day. The annual report of Clinton Hall for 1856, setting forth the cost of this transfer and describing the advantages of the new and spacious edifice, was made by the president, Wilson G. Hunt, esq., who for a period of twenty years had been one of its most active, able, and faithful directors, and has so continued to the present day. Such were the interest and the prosperity of the preceding sixteen months, that 308,254 times had its members shared in its benefits, making a daily average of 750 members who had received books or visited the reading room; 22,164 young men had been identified as members during the thirty-five years of its history; its library now contained 55,000 volumes, and the total library receipts up to this period were $173,000. There were now 6,064 active and subscribing members, and this period left a more decided waymark in the progress of the library than any of the years preceding or ensuing down to the close of our civil war. The year 1857 was one of financial panic and disaster. The rupture between the north and south so soon followed, and so great was the strain of the war in its opening upon the financial resources of the whole people, and so many of the young men of the city went into the ranks, that all social and literary progress was checked. It greatly diminished the numbers and resources of the library. For five or six years it scarcely held its condition as in 1856. But near the close of the war an era of prosperity began, which closed this decade of ten years from 1856 to 1866 as one of the brightest and most successful in its history. A new catalogue was completed and $7,500 expended in its publication; nearly $12,000 expended for new books; a new act of incorporation granted giving the power to receive and use large legacies without doubt; and as a crowning success, the entire debt on Clinton Hall of $62,000 was extinguished. During this year there was a total gain in membership of nearly 30 per cent. There were now 1,500 stockholders and 10,169 sharing the benefits of the library and reading room. The library now numbered 81,000 volumes, and the year's record showed a delivery of 178,000 volumes to its readers.

During the last nine years the association has advanced in

wealth and power for good beyond any period in its fifty-four years. The officers of the library and the trustees of Clinton Hall have specially sought to combine the knowledge and experience of forty-five years' administration here with that of the best popular libraries at home and abroad. They have sought to prove what is best in the daily record of delivery, in classifying and arranging the books upon the shelves, and the selection of books with special reference to the future needs of the library.

The reading room now contains the best American and foreign newspapers, magazines, and quarterlies, the total number of all being 417. On the 1st of May, 1875, the active and subscribing members of the library were 8,380, and the total number sharing its privileges 10,287. The library contained upward of 160,000 volumes. The number of volumes circulated and read during the last year was 203,000, and 7,332 were used as reference. A bindery is connected with the library and thus a large saving is effected every year. A new catalogue is being prepared under the direction of Mr. W. T. Peoples, librarian.

The Mercantile Library holds the fourth place, as to number of volumes on its shelves, among American public libraries. Its property, real and personal, is about $300,000 in value. Within its rooms it has gathered seven pieces of costly statuary, twenty portraits and paintings, and thirty engravings, all the gifts of its friends.

POPULAR LIBRARIES

Honorable Ira Divoll was born in Topham, Vermont, in 1820 and died in 1871. He graduated from the University of Vermont in 1842, studied law, and practised in St. Louis, where he also became superintendent of schools. He interested himself in libraries and laid the foundation of the public school library in St. Louis out of which the free public library grew. The extent and importance of school libraries at this time are shown by the following article by Mr. Divoll, which appeared in a supplement to *Appleton's Journal* in 1870.

The last third of a century has been a fruitful season for the establishment of libraries in the United States. The great Public Library of Boston, the Astor Library of New York, and many others of the first class, have had their origin and growth within this period; while hundreds of smaller ones, including popular and scientific, as well as college and professional libraries, have been founded by donation, endowment, or local enterprise, and are exerting a wide and healthful influence in the communities where they exist.

But it is a class of libraries, very different and distinct from the foregoing, to which I wish to call particular attention in this article—a class attempted to be established simultaneously in every part of a great state by legislative enactment.

As early as 1835-1838, the state of New York passed laws empowering (impliedly requiring) every school district within its jurisdiction to establish by taxation a free library for the use of school-children and adults, and made liberal appropriations of money to help defray their expenses. It was claimed that these libraries would "stimulate and aid the larger pupils," "promote the intellectual, moral, and religious culture of the rising generation," "tend to occupy the minds of the community, give them a taste for books, a love of knowledge, and consequently an interest in the schools." In short, they were to be both

auxiliary and supplemental to the district school, and constitute the "crowning excellence" of the system of popular education. Mr. Rice, the father of the school law of Ohio, said of this system: "In twenty years, if the library tax be continued, the people of Ohio as a mass, I will venture to predict, will become the most intelligent people on the face of the globe, and that, too, at a cost nobody would feel." Mr. Everett said: "If the state would adopt the plan of advancing to each town, for a school library, as much money as the town is willing to raise by itself, the greatest amount of good will be effected by the least burden on the state treasury." Dr. Wayland said: "Our system of general education seems to render some provision for furnishing abundant and good reading an imperative duty. To teach our people to read is to accomplish but half our work, or rather to leave our work unfinished precisely at the point where what we have done may prove a curse instead of a blessing. We can only realize the benefits of our system of general education when we not only teach the people to read, but also provide them with such reading as shall cultivate the intellect and improve the heart. When this shall have been done for our whole country, a population will rise up among us such as the world has never yet seen."

Hundreds of pages similar to the foregoing might be quoted from the advocates of the district-library system. The leading educators and statesmen throughout the land became enthusiastic on the subject. They took success for granted, and, in their eulogies upon the enterprise, dwelt only on the benefits which would accrue from an efficient general system. The opponents of the scheme were identical with the opponents of free schools—they objected to it solely on account of the expense. Of course, the friends of popular education overpowered such objectors. But I cannot find in all the records of the early discussions of this subject a single criticism on the feasibility of the plan proposed. No advocate of the measure seemed to think there was any risk, or danger, or possibility, of failure. No provisions were made respecting the details of the plan—no one suggested that such precautions were necessary—a mere legislative act authorizing each school district to levy a tax for the purpose of furnishing books was deemed a sufficient guaranty of success. It is wonderful the degree of credulity, and enthusiasm, and unanimity, that prevailed among the projectors and supporters of this scheme.

Since the statutory provisions of the several states differ materially in some particulars, I shall treat each state separately.

New York.—Mr. Abram B. Weaver, Superintendent of Public Schools for this state, in his report to the Legislature, February 26, 1869, says: "An act of the Legislature, passed April, 1835, authorized the inhabitants of each school district to raise a tax not exceeding $20 the first year, and $10 in any subsequent year, for the purchase of books for a district library. The law of 1838 provided that the sum of $55,000 from the income of the United States Deposit Fund should be applied annually for the same purpose. The distribution of this money was based upon the condition then regulating the distribution of other school moneys, that there should be raised in each town annually, by the several boards of supervisors, an amount equal to that apportioned by the state. This plan was discontinued by the act of 1851. Chapter one hundred and thirty-three of the laws of 1843 provided that, whenever a district has a library of a prescribed number of volumes, the money may be applied to the purchase of maps, globes, and other scientific apparatus, and, when both these requirements have been fulfilled, it may, with the consent of the superintendent, be expended for teachers' wages. This diversion was still further extended by act of 1858, which authorized trustees to apply the library money, whenever the amount was less than $3 for a district, to payment of teachers' wages. Under the operation of these statutes, the library system was organized and has been conducted to the present time."

What results ought we to expect from a system which has thus been persevered in, fostered, and liberally supported, for thirty-five years, by the Empire State of the Union? Let official documents give the answer. "The system," says Mr. Weaver, "seemed to have culminated in 1853. From that date its decline has been uniform and rapid."

The following statistical items are not without significance:

Whole amount expended by the state, to 1853.....	$1,266,282.97
Whole amount expended by the state, to 1868.....	1,788,693.60
Total number of volumes in libraries, in 1853.....	1,604,210
Total number of volumes in libraries, in 1868.....	1,064,830
Decrease of volumes	539,380

It will thus be seen that the total amount expended since 1853 is over half a million of dollars, and, during the same period, the number of volumes has decreased more than half a million, or more than one-third of the greatest number ever in the libraries.

Further evidence might seem to be unnecessary with regard to the condition of the district libraries of New York, but, since this state was the first to adopt the system, and has adhered to it through evil and good report for more than one-third of a century, I deem it proper to give a few samples of the evidence furnished to the superintendent on which he based his comments. There are in the state some sixty counties, for which commissioners are appointed, whose duty it is to report to the state superintendent the condition of the libraries as well as of the schools. The reports given below are not selected, but taken in regular order, beginning with Albany County, the counties being arranged alphabetically:

1. The libraries in some of the large districts are in good condition, but those in the rural districts are miserable in the extreme. School-district libraries have passed their day of usefulness, etc.
2. Most of the districts use the library money in payment of teachers' wages, the libraries being pretty generally neglected, and in many instances thrown aside.
3. School-district libraries seem to have had their day; and, unless some radical change can be effected, it is useless to make appropriations to continue them.
4. These are of little or no account, some of the trustees hardly knowing whether they have one or not.
5. Only seven districts purchased books with the money appropriated to them within the year, while seventy-two applied it to the payment of teachers' wages—some without authority of law.
6. There seems to be but one way by which the school-district libraries can be saved from total destruction, etc.
7. I think the library money would be used with greater profit to districts, if it was expended in buying books for indigent children.
8. In regard to libraries, I can but repeat my views, given in a former report, that, in a large majority of districts, no attention whatever is paid to them. The interest once had in them cannot be revived. The time of their usefulness has passed.
9. The school-district libraries are very poorly sustained.
10. A few of these libraries are very valuable, and are well cared for. That libraries, however, as a whole, are at a discount, is evident.

Precisely the same strain of comment runs through all the commissioners' reports.

Ohio.—This state tried to improve upon the New York plan by establishing town instead of district libraries. But, when the system had been thoroughly tested in this form without resulting in the success which was anticipated, an act was passed to divide the town library into sub-district libraries. This measure, however, not only failed to revive interest in the subject, but hastened the loss and destruction of the books by parcelling out each town collection to a dozen or more irresponsible parties, as will be seen from the following official statements:

Mr. John A. Norris, Commissioner of Common Schools for this state, in his report for 1868, says: "There can be little question that our township libraries have either fulfilled their mission, or are destined never to fill it. The books are scattered or lost in large numbers. Those that are gathered into the township central libraries, as required by the amended law of 1864, are read by few or none but the families of the librarians; and, in the townships where the requirements of the amended law have not been complied with, the books, at least the great bulk of them, are hopelessly scattered or destroyed."

No. of volumes in libraries, 1867	310,328
No. of volumes in libraries, 1868	286,684
Decrease	23,644
No. of volumes in libraries, 1869	258,731
Decrease	28,313

Mr. William D. Henkle, commissioner for 1869, asks the "school examiners" for the respective counties to report the "condition of school libraries." Reports are made for about ninety counties, the counties being arranged alphabetically. I give in order the responses of the examiners for the first ten counties, as follows:

1. Bad.
2. In most of our townships they are reported as things that were; while in a few they have been gathered and stowed "mid the old lumber of the gallery," until, in the dust and cobwebs of years, the place of their burial is almost lost or forgotten.

3. Of no consequence. Books scattered, and no care taken of them.
4. As a general thing, reported in good condition; not much used; a few books badly worn.
5. Bad.
6. As a general thing, they do not amount to much, and the books are lost or destroyed, etc.
7. Not good; few libraries; books scattered, but little used, and less cared for.
8. Libraries are in a scattered condition.
9. Very bad, with but two or three exceptions.
10. Generally neglected. Reports indicate no interest in them whatever.

The rest of the responses reiterate the same story.

Wisconsin.—The law passed in 1848-1849 authorized the town superintendent to deduct 10 per cent of the money apportioned to the town from the income of the school fund, and apply it to the purchase of books for district libraries. In 1861, this law was repealed, and since then it has been lawful only to raise a district tax for libraries. In 1868, an act to provide for establishing town libraries was passed. It authorized every town to determine by vote for or against a town library, and to raise a sum of money, not exceeding $150 in any one year, for the purpose of defraying the expenses of the same. Nothing has yet been reported concerning the operation of this new law. But the old system is thus briefly disposed of by Superintendent McMynn, in his report to the Legislature in 1867:

> The returns show that the present library system is a failure, so far as most of the districts of the state are concerned.

Mr. A. J. Craig, successor to Mr. McMynn, does not even allude to the subject in his report for 1868, nor in that for 1869, except to give some tabular statements of the number of volumes in the libraries, their cash value, etc., from which I gather the following significant items:

No. of volumes in libraries, 1866	26,667
No. of volumes in libraries, 1867	23,758
Decrease	2,909
Cash value of libraries, 1866	$21,893
Cash value of libraries, 1867	19,563
Decrease	$2,330

Michigan.—Here, originally, the law provided for township libraries; but the books, instead of being loaned out directly to individuals, were to be allotted in just proportion to the directors of the sub-districts, and by them distributed to the parents and guardians of the school-children—that is, the whole collection of books was to be divided into as many parcels as there were districts in the town, and a parcel was to go to each district. At the end of three months, all the books were to be returned to the town library for a new allotment; and thus, every three months perpetually, a return and redistribution were to be made. That this plan failed most signally, is not to be wondered at; but the wonder is, that any sane person should ever dream of trying to put in practice such a visionary scheme. It has been humorously but very justly called the "itinerary district-library system."

The dissatisfaction with the township system, and the clamor for district libraries pure and simple, became so great that in 1859 an act was passed, allowing the towns by popular vote to change to the district system. About three-fourths of the towns voted to change; but no good came of it. Those who favored the new plan, however, maintain that its failure was attributable wholly to the lack of suitable support. The revenue, though small, was certain before the change—only contingent after. The old law set aside $25 out of the two mills school tax for libraries in each town. Under the new law, all moneys received from fines, forfeitures, and penalties, go for libraries, and also such other sum as each town may vote out of the two-mills tax.

The results of the Michigan system are easily told. Mr. O. Hosford, State Superintendent, says, in his report for 1868: "The district libraries have proved a failure. The reports from all parts of the state are, that no district libraries can be found, except those belonging to some of the Union Schools." The county superintendents, so far as they mention the subject at all, testify to the same effect. I add a few samples of their reports:

1. Libraries are a failure throughout the county.
2. The condition of the district libraries is deplorable. The system, I am convinced, is devoid of vitality.
3. Libraries are of but little account.
4. Not much progress can be reported in this matter.
5. The libraries seem to have fallen into general neglect.

Indiana.—This state adopted the township system, and assessed a general tax for purchasing books. While the system was a novelty, the books were much read; but, being, like the other schemes, devoid of vitality, it soon fell into general neglect, and became unpopular. On the recommendation of the State Superintendent of Public Schools, 1866, the law authorizing the levy of a library tax was repealed. Thus ended the Indiana scheme, which had been lauded as the greatest blessing ever vouchsafed to the state.

Massachusetts.—My belief is that a plan similar to that of New York was originally adopted in this state (about 1840-1845), and that it soon proved unsatisfactory, and was abandoned. I cannot speak positively on this point, however, for the Secretary of the Board of Education, to whom I applied for information, did not respond to my request.

The following law respecting libraries, passed in 1851 is still in force:

> Each town and city may establish and maintain a public library therein, with or without branches, for the use of the inhabitants thereof, and provide suitable rooms therefor, under such regulations as may from time to time be prescribed by the inhabitants of the town or by the city council.
>
> Any town or city may appropriate money for suitable buildings or rooms, and for the foundation of such library, a sum not exceeding $1 for each of the ratable polls, in the year next preceding that in which such appropriation is made; may also appropriate annually, for the maintenance and increase thereof, a sum not exceeding 50 cents for each of its ratable polls, in the year next preceding that in which such appropriation is made, and receive, hold and manage any devise, bequest, or donation for the establishment, increase, or maintenance of a public library within the same.

This law is believed to be the wisest that has yet been adopted on the subject, and under its operation permanent popular libraries have sprung up in all parts of the state. I shall have occasion to refer to the above act again.

Connecticut.—The law adopted in 1856 authorized the state treasurer to pay $10 to every school district which should raise a like sum for the same purpose, to establish within such district a school library and procure apparatus; and every subsequent year the sum of $5 was to be paid on the same condition. The Board of Visitors for each town selected the books, and made rules for their management and safekeeping. This law is still

in force, and is generally complied with; but the funds, instead of being used to build up libraries for general reading (as was undoubtedly intended), are applied for the purchase of suitable apparatus and reference-books for use in the school-room. This slight diversion has saved the statutory provisions from that contempt into which they have fallen in other states.

With the hope of building up an efficient system of libraries for general reading, Connecticut adopted, in 1869, the Massachusetts law in substance.

Pennsylvania, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas and *California,* have enacted laws on the subject; but no practical results are reported.

In view of the foregoing statements, it is just to conclude, not that all the efforts and expenditures that have been made have been wholly wasted—for many good books have been furnished to the people, and read by them, and the reading of good books is always a benefit—but that, in regard to the primary object of those efforts and expenditures, namely, the founding of a system of permanent libraries, the attempts have proved total and unqualified failures.

Causes of Failure

From the very nature of the case, it is impossible to establish thousands of libraries on a firm foundation by a single legislative enactment. The Legislature, we know, can do many things. It can make laws, and punish law-breakers; it can establish courts of justice, gather taxes, etc., because in such matters it exercises absolute control, appoints its own agents, prescribes their duties, and rewards their services. On the same principle, a state could undoubtedly attempt to establish a system of libraries. But the attempt would be so absurd as to cause speedy displacement from office of those who might make it; hence it is just to conclude that it is impossible for the state to do this thing. But it may be asked, Why is it not just as easy and proper for the state to direct and supervise a system of libraries as a system of schools? This is just the point that needs explanation, and the advocates of library schemes are greatly at fault for never having explained it.

Persons not yet past middle age, whose attention has been called to the educational progress of the country, will remember what obstacles and difficulties, what delays and trials, had to be encountered, in many states, before the present efficient system

of education could be established. And yet, how simple and easy the undertaking, compared with that of establishing a system of libraries!

1. The district school is as old as our government. The district-school library which was inaugurated by the New York Legislature in 1835 was new to the whole world.

2. Even during the early period of our government, a large portion of our people, in many states a majority, were in favor of free schools, to be supported by taxation; now, an immense majority in every state are in favor of such schools. But there is no evidence of strong public sentiment in any state in favor of supporting free libraries in the same way.

3. The school district is the primary feature of our form of government. From the beginning, the legal voters have been accustomed to meet once or twice a year, and transact their business in truly democratic style. They are, and always have been, familiar with the details of managing schools. But, as a general thing, they have had no experience, and consequently have gained no knowledge, with reference to the management of libraries.

4. The whole world regards schools as a necessity. There is no such feeling or appreciation with regard to libraries. Consequently the people will readily contribute to the support of the former, when they will not for the latter.

5. Everybody understands, in reference to schools, the necessity of having a school-house, text-books, furniture, records, rules, and a teacher. But the projectors of our library schemes did not deem it necessary to provide for library-room, bookcases, furniture, or librarian. They provided for books, and for nothing else. What chance of success had the library compared with the school?

6. School property is less liable to loss or destruction than library property. The school-house, furniture, and teacher's services, are not subject to much risk; but a collection of books is—ten thousand instances attest the ease with which they disappear.

From the above brief statement of the nature of libraries, and the difficulties of managing them, it is easy to discern the causes of failure in the schemes hitherto adopted:

a. In no single instance was the law well matured, no attention was given to details; no provision was made, except for

supplying books—none for rooms, furniture, bookcases, custodian, etc.

b. The same general provisions were attempted to be applied alike to cities, towns, villages, and rural districts; while it is plain that their respective requirements are essentially different. Ohio, having reference to this fact, in revising her library law recently, divided cities into those of first class, second class, etc., and made special provisions for each class.

c. In part, the laws were compulsory, and in part advisory, or left to the option of the district or town to fulfill them. In so far as they were compulsory, they failed to furnish sufficient means of support, and, in so far as they were advisory, they failed to arouse sufficient local interest to render them effective.

New Plan Proposed

Notwithstanding past failures, the American people are by no means disposed to give up the problem of founding libraries, they are determined to establish them as a part of the system of popular education, to be easily and permanently accessible to all classes of persons, children, and youth, as well as adults. The first step in the program is to devise and agree upon a suitable plan—a plan possessing features or characteristics clear and well defined, and of general application; and withall one that will meet with favor among the people, and hence prove practicable, feasible, successful. Who is equal to the task of devising and defining such a plan?

The writer of this article will not attempt to give a full and satisfactory solution of this problem; but he ventures certain opinions and suggestions on the subject, and hopes they will provoke further consideration on the part of educators and law-makers:

1. The plan must provide for pay instead of free libraries; the latter not having proved successful anywhere in this country, it may be taken for granted that they are not yet available.

2. Great stress should be placed upon life-membership, the subscription price for which should be made very low, and payable in small instalments when desired, so as to be within the means of all classes of persons who may wish to use the books. Let the life-members, above a certain age, have the management of the library; they will form a perpetual association, which will care for its interests.

3. Let the library be formed for children and youth as well as for adults, and let the terms be precisely the same for all.

4. The juvenile and all other books should be selected with great care, and with reference to the wants of the members. But every association must do this work for itself. Doubtless in many libraries already formed, and in many that will be formed hereafter, mistakes will be made in this matter, but it is through mistakes that the American people are expected to educate themselves—to learn wisdom; and the same rule which applies in matters of politics must apply in this case.

5. Woman is peculiarly adapted to aid in the formation and management of libraries; therefore let her be placed on equal footing with men in respect to membership and direction of affairs.

6. Let the library be inalienably connected with the public schools by having one or more of the local school-officers on the board of managers. This connection will be of great service. The public schools are the most popular institutions in our country, and they are becoming still more popular every year. They can carry a library with very little effort. Pupils and patrons are certain to sympathize with the movement, and, through the agency of the teachers their combined influence can easily be concentrated and made available. In practice it will be found that a large proportion of the new members will be recruits from the youth in the schools and those having just left. This will tend to make the juvenile department prominent for a short time, but, since the library is built for the future—for future generations—it is plain to see that, after a few years, the adult membership will largely predominate.

The main reason for connecting the library with the schools is to make it, in a special sense, educational in character. Mere text-book education is inadequate to meet the wants of the rising generation. Children should be made to understand that only the merest elements of learning are taught in the school-room—that only the foundation is laid, and that the library is to furnish the means for completing the superstructure. The school and the library should thus be associated together in the pupil's mind, so that the transition from the one to the other will be encouraged and made easy and certain. In this way, if at all, the people may be educated to read good books, instead of the vile trash now so popular and so corrupting to the young.

7. How far is it advisable and just to ask state cooperation in the establishment of such popular libraries as are contemplated? From the tenor of the foregoing remarks the reader has already learned that the writer of this article has not much confidence in the efficacy of state legislation. I would strike from the statute-books all library laws that are in any sense compulsory—all that look to founding libraries by wholesale—all that make a general appropriation for their support. All such schemes have been shown to be visionary. I would commence *de novo,* relying mainly upon individual efforts and local interest for initiatory steps. If local agencies cannot be enlisted in the cause, it is futile to undertake the founding of libraries by state enactments. But the question I propose is "How far is it advisable to seek state cooperation in aid, or for the encouragement, of local authorities." There are two ways in which state cooperation may be safely sought: first, by the enactment of a law simply empowering the trustees of any town to use a certain per cent of the school revenues toward the founding and maintaining of a library; and, secondly, by adopting, in substance, the Massachusetts law. This law, already quoted, may well claim a moment's attention, for it is doubtless the wisest legislation that has been had on the subject. It was instigated by no visionary educators over-anxious to establish a state system, and yet it has proved the most effective of any in establishing such a system. It looks wholly to local interest and local agencies. Its origin was as follows: President Wayland made a donation of $1,000 to the town of Wayland, in Massachusetts, to purchase books, on condition that the town would suitably provide for their depository and use. The town authorities, conceiving they had not corporate power to comply with the condition, applied for an enabling act. But the Legislature, very properly regarding special legislation as objectionable, enacted a general law, giving to every town in the state authority to do what the town of Wayland asked permission to do. This law is in no respect compulsory or mandatory; it is not even advisory, but only permissive. It prescribes no system, it levies no tax; it appropriates no money; it lays down no rules. It simply authorizes a community to tax themselves, if they choose, to establish a library. It contemplates local interest as preliminary to the operation of the law. Since the passage of this act, in 1851,

permanent libraries have been founded in a large majority of the towns of the state, and especially in the cities and villages. (If the library be maintained in part by a general tax, it should be free to all citizens for reference use while membership-fees should be charged only upon those who draw books for home-reading).

8. It will save disappointments, perhaps failures, if those who undertake to found libraries will bear in mind that the most difficult part of the task is, not to get the books, but to take care of them after purchase—to utilize them—in a word, to manage the institution. Neither is the cost of the books a large item in the total cost. Rooms, bookcases, furniture, registers, librarian, etc., are to be provided, it is sheer folly to attempt to start a library without making these provisions; they are just as necessary to success in a collection of five hundred volumes as in one of fifty thousand. I add a few estimates, which are approximately correct, showing the relative cost of books in the current expenses of established libraries.

ST. LOUIS PUBLIC SCHOOL LIBRARY

Total expenses, 1866, about $13,000
Expended for books, about 5,000

BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY

Total expenses, 1868, about $51,000
Expended for books, about 11,500

HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY

Total expenses, 1868, about $12,000
For books, about 2,500

CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY

Total expenses, per annum, about $30,000
For books, about 11,500

ST. LOUIS MERCANTILE LIBRARY

Total expenses, 1868, about $20,000
For books, about 4,000

9. No attempt is made in this article to give specific directions with regard to organization; but it is believed that the plan here outlined may be adopted with success in any city or village of a thousand or more inhabitants. It is evident the obstacles in the way of forming libraries are far greater in

rural districts than in towns, and it is useless to attempt the more difficult task until complete success has been achieved in the more feasible.

St. Louis Public School Library

Success is the test of merit of any given plan. In order to show the practical nature of the principles just laid down, I will give a brief account of the above-named institution, in whose establishment and management I have participated, and which is founded on the plan here briefly sketched. This library, now numbering over twenty thousand volumes, and having an annual circulation of over sixty thousand volumes, with a large and well-appointed reading room attached, was begun in 1865. It had no endowment nor claim for support upon any public fund, but was dependent solely upon membership fees, and upon such other precarious revenues as might be derived from small gifts of books or money, and from lectures, exhibitions, etc. With these means it grew in two years to over ten thousand volumes, and had a large membership and extensive circulation. Since then it has received $5,000 from a public fund, and is now the annual recipient of $4,000 or $5,000 from a bequest.

The success of this institution did not result from any adventitious or peculiar circumstances, but was due mainly to the plan on which it was founded. It was adapted to the means as well as the wants of the masses, and they came to its support, and availed themselves of its blessings, by thousands. Firmly believing that this plan possesses the merit of general application, I shall, at the risk of some repetition, explain its practical working. The library was originally organized under a special charter, but said charter connected it permanently with the public schools by making four prominent school officers trustees ex officio of the library. After two and a half years of separate existence, during which time it had grown to over twelve thousand volumes, it was transferred to, or rather adopted by, the Board of Public Schools, whereby it became in legal form what it had already demonstrated itself to be in fact, a useful and efficient accessory to the educational system.

The mode of management under the special charter was not materially changed by the terms of transfer, the latter providing for a board of sixteen managers, nine of whom are appointed by the schoolboard, and seven are elected by the life members.

From the beginning the board of direction has been composed of both males and females. The propriety and wisdom of this arrangement became apparent when one bears in mind that the library is to be built up mainly through school agencies, and that more than nine-tenths of the teachers are females. This feature has undoubtedly given encouragement in the direction it was intended to, and caused the unusual if not unprecedented enrollment of female members, who comprise just about one-half the total number.

Twelve dollars is the entire fee for life-membership, and this may be paid at once, or in annual subscriptions of $4 each, or in $1 instalments, at the option of the applicant. All these ways of paying are practised, but by far the larger portion of the applicants, particularly the younger ones, become members by purchasing a dollar-certificate every three months. This feature gave great popularity to the institution, and rendered it self-supporting. One dollar secures the use of the library for three months, and, when once a member, the applicant is almost certain to go on and pay the $12.

It is doubtful if this library would be as useful as it is if it were entirely free—doubtful if the number of readers or the circulation of books would be as great. The small fees exacted do not operate to exclude from becoming members any considerable number of persons who have time and inclination to read books. What the American people want is not a gratuity or a charity, but an institution within their means—one of whose privileges they can readily avail themselves. Such is the library which I am describing, and it is the constant resort of hundreds, nay thousands, of the youth of the city.

Besides the ordinary and palpable advantages which adult members derive from a well-selected popular library, there are observable in this case the most happy and beneficial results upon the younger visitors. Firstly: A very large portion of the advanced pupils of the schools, at the instance and under the direction of their teachers, use the library to assist them to a better understanding of the subjects they are studying. Thus they learn how to use a library, obtain the key with which they can unlock its treasures at their will. Secondly: Experience has already shown that those who become members while they are pupils continue their connection after leaving school. They get attached to the institution, because it is their institution,

and they will not be likely soon to forsake it. Habits of reading once acquired are pretty certain to last through life. Thirdly: The associations formed where perfect decorum and propriety of conduct prevail, cultivate good manners and good morals. Fourthly: The youth who have been using the library for two or three years have made marked progress in the quality of books which they read.

From the foregoing it will be seen that the process of educating readers which is constantly going on in this institution necessitates a collection of books of the widest range as well as of the highest order. Hence the managers have been careful to preserve, in the increase of the library, just proportions in the several departments. The juvenile collection numbers about sixteen hundred volumes, or 8 per cent of the whole. The rest of the books are selected for adult and educated readers, and for scholars in every field of learning. The scientific department, in particular, is so full already as to be scarcely surpassed in older and larger institutions.

GENERAL PUBLIC LIBRARY ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

One of the most noticeable characteristics of this section is the changing emphasis. In the early days it was placed upon an organization that should have an exact legal status, and be conducted according to strict rules. Later the emphasis swings to community service, with only sufficient attention paid to "rules and regulations" to insure efficiency.

FREE PUBLIC LIBRARIES

In his annual report for 1869, Mr. Justin Winsor, then superintendent of the Public Library of Boston, says, "We have no schools of bibliographical and bibliothecal training whose graduates can guide the formation of, and assume management within the fast-increasing libraries of our country; and the demand may perhaps never warrant their establishment: but every library with a fair experience can afford inestimable instruction to another in its novitiate, and there have been no duties of my office to which I have given more hearty attention than those which have led to the granting of what we could from our experience to the representatives of other libraries, whether coming with inquiries fitting a collection as large as Cincinnati is to establish, or merely seeking such matters as concern the establishment of a village library. It is much to be hoped that during the coming year there will be instituted an organized medium for such inter-communication, under the direction of the American Social Science Association."

The following extract is from a pamphlet entitled "Free Public Libraries; suggestions on their foundation and administration," published by the above-mentioned association. Though libraries had been in existence in this country since the day when John Harvard gave his books to the college which bears his name, the first free library entirely supported by taxes, that of Peterboro, N. H., was not founded till 1833, and it was long after that day that the increase of libraries made it necessary to formulate some principles of organization and administration, of which this in 1871 is one of the first statements.

First Steps

First of all is the project of the library, then the enlistment of the right men and women to secure its execution. Public interest is to be aroused, in some communities created, and whatever means may be properly used for this purpose must be employed. It will soon be found that a good many means are needed. A brief circular to the towns-people, explaining the plan, and describing the experiences of towns possessing libraries, will generally be serviceable.

As an example of what may be done by means of a circular, the following extracts are given from a recent report on a proposed library for the town of Milton, Massachusetts:

Libraries, accessible to the people, have always been encouraged in the most intelligent and advanced communities. The father of social libraries in this country is Benjamin Franklin. They took for their model the proprietary library of Philadelphia, which was founded in 1731, mainly by his exertions. To use his own words, they "improved the general conversation of the Americans, made the common tradesmen and farmers as intelligent as most gentlemen in other countries, and perhaps contributed in some degree to the stand so generally made throughout the colonies, in defense of their privileges." With the great patriot and philosopher, these were not words of theory alone, but of experience. In the sharp struggle of his youth for a livelihood, he had learned the priceless value of good books to a young man without patrimony, and dependent upon his own hands and brain for support. To such libraries, however, subscribers only were admitted; and, beneficent as they proved, they yet failed to reach a large portion of the community. In the direction of a freer system, but with special and almost exclusive reference to children in the public schools, the state of New York in 1835, and our own state in 1842 and 1843, enacted laws authorizing the establishment of School District Libraries. These did much good in directing public attention, and preparing the way, but they were too limited in their scope; and, besides, it was found that the town system for the support and administration of a library, like the town system for the support and administration of schools, was more likely to secure the best results.

Accordingly, in 1851 our Legislature enacted a law authorizing towns to establish and maintain Public Libraries, and raise money for the purpose. Under this act, and the additional legislation of 1866, each town has ample and unrestricted power to establish and maintain a Public Library, and to provide suitable buildings or rooms therefor.

It may be worth while to note that almost contemporaneously with the act of 1851—a few months earlier—similar legislation

for town libraries, to be voted upon by the burgesses, and to be supported by local taxes, took effect in England, which has been amplified by succeeding Acts of Parliament. Under it libraries have been opened at Manchester, Birmingham, Liverpool, and less populous places, often with imposing ceremonies. By the concurrence of all testimonies, they have already achieved a great work in spreading intelligence among the masses, particularly among artisans and families of limited means, and they promise to realize still greater results in the future. This system has been extended in a measure to Canada and other British Provinces. The state of Wisconsin, in 1859, established a liberal system of Township Libraries; and other western states have moved in the same direction.

Your committee believe that such a library would be useful, directly or indirectly, to all the citizens of the town. It would be especially so to those whose straightened means do not allow them free access to books. Few, if any, households would fail to seek and appreciate its benefits. In all seasons it would be resorted to by a large proportion of our people, and in the winter and less occupied seasons it would be an unfailing source of entertainment and profit. Besides its advantages to adults, it would be of great service to the scholars of the high school, and to the advanced scholars of the grammar schools. Indeed, no school education is complete which does not conduct the child to a good library. Nor is it unworthy of consideration that a town library would bring our people more together, and stimulate a greater unity of feeling among them, and a greater interest in the common welfare. It would make a residence in the town more attractive and valuable, and invite others to remove to it, who, by sharing our taxation, would reduce the rate now assessed upon us. May we not also with much confidence expect that, when its success is assured, citizens or natives of the town, following the example of Joshua Bates and George Peabody, and many other benefactors of town libraries, will enrich it with donations and legacies? The experience of other towns warrant this expectation.

Objections to be Met

However persuasive a circular may be,—indeed, whether there be any or not,—objections are almost sure to arise. Some will come from timidity, some from stinginess, some from apathy, if not hostility. They must be met. The expense of a library must be proved judicious; the uncertainties or fears regarding its use must be dispelled; the indifference or opposition to it must be broken up. It is impossible to suggest measures adapted to all cases; nor is it necessary. But one or two objections of frequent recurrence may be adverted to, e.g. "Books won't be taken out," to which the simplest answer is,

"Try," or, "They are, everywhere else." Again: "They won't be brought back," to which one may reply, "They will be, for when they are read, others will be wanted." The strongest objection, however, is pecuniary; and if that can be met, others will not be stoutly pressed.

Modes of Raising Money

It becomes, therefore, a question of primary importance, how the money for the library can be raised. Sometimes, and perhaps generally, a town can be persuaded to make the requisite appropriation; but this is not always to be depended upon. It happens not infrequently that a library has to be started by individuals, trusting to its being taken up afterward by the town or by some rich townsman. In that case, a subscription, in which but few will probably join at the outset, is to be opened and to be carried as far as circumstances allow.

Board or Committee on Library

In anticipation of the steps thus suggested, a board of management is to be selected. Even before the library exists, or the board can be formally appointed, its designation is of great consequence. In fact, the value of the library to come will depend upon the persons who are to usher it into being. As far as possible, they should represent all the leading interests of the community. They should hold their appointments long enough to render their experience serviceable, and when they go out of office, it should be by twos or threes rather than that the entire body should be changed at once.

One of their first acts should be the choice of a librarian. If not fully qualified, he should make a study of the work to be done, and fit himself at once to be the literary counsellor of the institution.

As he must act upon some clearly defined system, it will be well to give early consideration to rules concerning

The Librarian and His Duties

Art. 1. The Librarian, under the direction of the Board or Committee on the Library, shall have the charge and superintendence of all books and other property belonging to the Library, and shall be responsible for the due care thereof.

Art. 2. He shall be present in the Library in person, or by an assistant approved by the Committee, at all times when it is opened to the public.

Art. 3. He shall cause to be entered in a record to be called the Accession Catalog the title of every book added to the Library, the date of its reception, its cost if purchased, the name of its donor if given, and such other particulars as the Committee may direct. And no book shall be put in use unless so recorded.

Art. 4. He shall promptly acknowledge all gifts to the Library, in such form as the Committee may direct.

Art. 5. He shall arrange all the books on the shelves in a proper order, and prepare such catalogs, lists, and forms as the Committee may direct.

Art. 6. He shall affix a star to the title of such books as from rarity, costliness, or any reason, should not be permitted to go into the hands of a borrower without special permission.

Art. 7. He shall attach to every volume, before it is lent, such rules of the library as are needful to be known, and also a stamp, label, or book-plate, with the date of accession, the donor's name, if it be a gift, the number of the shelf on which it is kept, and the number it bears on the Accession Catalog.

Art. 8. He shall keep a record of all books asked for which are not in the Library, with the names of the persons asking for them.

Art. 9. He shall keep a record of persons entitled to use the Library, enter the delivery and return of books; take care that books are not kept beyond the time, ill-used or lost; maintain order in the Library; and enforce all rules of the Committee.

Art. 10. He shall from time to time, under the direction of the Committee, make a thorough examination of the Library, and present a report of its condition and increase.

Art. 11. If the Committee do not reserve the charge to themselves, he shall, subject to their approval, contract for and order books.

Art. 12. If the Committee do not reserve the charge to themselves, he shall, subject to their approval, appoint assistants and fix their salaries.

A WORD TO THE STARTERS OF LIBRARIES

The first article in the first number of *The Library Journal* is this by Justin Winsor. It suggests rather how to "get ready to begin" to start a library, than how really to organize. The problem then was an individual one, with very little standardized material. The word of advice is still needed by many who contemplate the establishment of libraries, though published material is now so easily available.

Justin Winsor was born in Boston, January 2, 1831. He took his bachelor's degree from Harvard College, travelled and studied in Paris and Heidelberg, his special interest being in literature and American history. He was made a member of the Board of Trustees of the Boston Public Library in 1866; in 1868 he became superintendent of the same library. He became librarian of Harvard University in 1877 where he remained until his death in 1897. He was the first president of the American Library Association and served in that office from 1876-1885.

Every well-established librarian occasionally or even frequently receives letters of which the following is a fair sample:

PUNKEYVILLE, July 10, 1876.

DEAR SIR: The Honorable Hezekiah Jones, of our town, has donated [by the way, *given* has dropped out of the dictionary with such people] $——— to found a library in this his native place, and we wish the library to reflect honor on him and credit on Punkeyville. Accordingly we would be obliged for any information you can give to enable us to establish this trust on a correct basis.

Very respectfully,
For the Committee,
JOHN BROWN.

P. S.—I hope you will send us your catalogues, your charter, and your rules.

Mr. Brown is very likely an estimable person, whom the benefactor has designated as suitable for the head of the trust. Perhaps he is a clergyman, and if you should ask him to tell you the way in which to run a church and take care of a parish, he would remind you that, if it were not for writing the next Sunday's sermon, he might find time to enlighten you. Perhaps he is a physician, beloved of the people, and trusted above all by the Honorable Mr. Jones; but if you asked him something about the theory and practice of medicine, he would refer you to the journals of his profession or recommend a course of study in the schools. Perhaps Brown is the lawyer of the place who has the most business in the County Court, and if you should ask his professional opinion, he would charge you for it according to the time he takes for it, and according to the number of letters he has written you about it. Perhaps he is a teacher of the academy, which is another of Jones' benefactions, and he finds all the spare time he can get from teaching valuable to him in preparing an annotated text of Nepos, which through Jones' influence he hopes to get introduced into schools by the State Board of Education, and to profit thereby enough to lay aside a beginning of a competency for a rainy day.

And yet—

Brown the clergyman has written a letter without a firstly and so on to lastly in it, and evidently with the expectation that the librarian can answer in a sentence more points than he ever ventured to put into half a dozen sermons.

And yet—

Brown the physician has asked a diagnosis without giving you a symptom to go by, without the slightest intimation of any of the conditions, in gift or community to be met.

And yet—

Brown the lawyer has written a letter which will require another in return to learn what is really wanted, knowing very well that librarians never send bills with "letters" charged at so much.

And yet—

Brown the teacher thinks the librarian has no time outside of his prescribed duties that can profitably be spent in laying in his store for a day when he can labor no more.

I hope those who are laboring to advance the library interests

of the country will understand that I am not aiming to abridge the useful advice which an experienced librarian can bestow outside of his own sphere, and can bestow gratuitously, but I would inculcate upon all having occasion to avail themselves of such experience, that it is the result of application that is never ceasing, and that it is only fair to such librarians that they should not be called upon to spend time on cases until the cases are well made up. There is no disposition on the part of librarians to shun a general duty which they owe as citizens, if the propositions which are made to them are put with understanding and in such a way as to show that the seekers have fairly tried to help themselves.

Now, how can this be done? In the first place, procure what is in print—such volumes, for instance, as the new publication of the Educational Bureau at Washington. Send to any library which is a fit exemplar, and ask for its rules and reports, and do not forget to enclose stamps for postage; but do not ask of a great library to have its catalag sent till you have learned something of what you are asking for, a little later in your progress. I think you will never, or rarely, get a rebuff to such a request. Take time to study all these documents and when you have got a clear idea of what a library is, and how it should be administered, consider closely the fitness of this or that library to this or that kind of community, or to these or those conditions under which you are to work. Do not think you have no time for this. If you have not, resign your trust to some one who has, and who has a correct appreciation of the old adage that those who help themselves are soonest helped by others.

Now, after this, if you find there are still points on which you are in doubt, and questions which your study has not given you solutions of, you may bother an old librarian. You can now write him understandingly. He will discover it at once, and will be propitiated. Ask him your questions concisely, and come to your points at once. Avoid all irrelevant twaddle. The librarian will not understand Brown's quandary any better from learning that Jones married Brown's wife's sister, or that Jones' endowment is invested in Punkeyville Mining Company, which pays good dividends. There is no busier man than the librarian of a large library; for his work is never

done, and he is one of those people who find the more expected of them the more they do. There is one thing more. You must not be surprised to find some diversity of views among experts. They arise from different experiences and because of the varying conditions under which a library may be administered. The processes of one library can rarely be transplanted to another without desirable modifications, arising from some change of conditions. This accounts for a great deal of variance in the opinions of librarians; but it by no means follows that each of two systems under proper conditions may not be equally good, when both are understood and an equal familiarity has been acquired with each. Choose that which you naturally take to; run it, and do not decide that the other is not perfectly satisfactory to him who chose that. Whichever you have chosen, study to improve it, and you will probably do so, in so far as it becomes fitted more closely to the individuality of yourself and your library.

ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES

This article, from the Special Report on Public Libraries published by the U.S. Bureau of Education, was written while the author Mr. William F. Poole, was librarian of the Chicago public library. We include here only the introductory paragraphs, as the succeeding sections discuss details which will be taken up under their respective topics in other volumes of this series. The definition of a "public library," which he gives in the third paragraph, is that upon which the real American public library has been built. Routine for obtaining support is his main theme and it is one of the first steps to be taken.

A sketch of Mr. Poole appears in Volume 3.

The librarians of city libraries are constantly receiving letters from communities, where no public library exists, or where a new one is in progress, inquiring into the methods by which such a library may be organized and conducted. Such information, when it is directed to specific points, is freely given; but in the midst of pressing official duties, it is often a severe tax upon a librarian's time to answer these inquiries. It is also impossible, in the brief space of such a reply, and without knowing the resources at command and the special conditions of the enterprise, to give much useful instruction. Many persons have written about public libraries, but there is no treatise giving that rudimentary and practical information which is needed, and to which the parties making these inquiries can be referred. In view of the pressing necessity that appears to exist, the writer has prepared the following paper, embodying some practical suggestions on this subject which, it is hoped, will partially supply the want that has been named.

The term "public library" has come to have in our country a restricted and technical meaning. The Library of Congress, the Boston Athenæum, and the Astor Library are, in a general

sense, public libraries; but they are not the class of institutions we are to consider. In the Library of Congress, the Senators and Representatives and the chief officers of the government are the only persons who enjoy its full privileges. By courtesy, the public are allowed to use its books on the premises. The Boston Athenæum is a stock company, and only proprietors and those whom they introduce enjoy its benefits. The Astor Library, though accessible to all persons for reference only, was founded and is maintained by private munificence. The public has never contributed to its support, and has no voice in its management. Free libraries and free town libraries have existed in Europe for three centuries; but they are libraries for scholars and not for the masses of the people, and are not supported by popular taxation. The Free Library of Hamburg, in Germany, was founded chiefly from monastic collections in 1539, and in 1869 had one hundred and ninety thousand volumes and five thousand manuscripts; but during that year only four thousand volumes were taken out. The Free Library of Frankfort-on-the-Main, with eighty-four thousand volumes, issued two thousand; and that of Leipzig, with one hundred and thirteen thousand volumes, issued fifteen hundred. The books which these libraries contain are not of the class which interest the people at large.

The "public library" which we are to consider is established by state laws, is supported by local taxation and voluntary gifts, is managed as a public trust, and every citizen of the city or town which maintains it has an equal share in its privileges of reference and circulation. It is not a library simply for scholars and professional men, as are the libraries which have been named, but for the whole community—the mechanic, the laboring man, the sewing-girl, the youth, and all who desire to read, whatever be their rank, intelligence, or condition in life. It is the adjunct and supplement of the common school system. Both are established and maintained on the same principles—that general education is essential to the highest welfare of any people; and, considered simply as a question of political economy, it is better and cheaper, in the long run, to educate a community than to support prisons and reformatories.

It is now about a quarter of a century since the first institution of the kind existed. The idea originated in Massachu-

setts and England nearly at the same time, the Massachusetts enterprise having a slight priority. These libraries now number several hundred, and their number is rapidly increasing. Their surprising development within the last few years is one of the most interesting features of educational progress in our time. In England these institutions are called "free libraries." It will be the purpose of this paper to state somewhat in detail, and in the simplest manner, the methods and plans of procedure which experience has tested in the establishment and arrangement of a public library.

Preliminary Steps in Organization

The first question to be considered is this: Is there a statute of the state which authorizes a tax to be levied for the support of a public library? Without a legal authority for taxation, a public library of this kind is an impossibility. Active operations must be delayed till such a law is enacted. If a petition, supported by the influence of the local representative, be sent to the legislature, a public library act can probably be obtained.

In Massachusetts, cities and towns are authorized to lay any tax they see fit for the support of a public library. In Ohio, cities may lay a tax of one-fifth of a mill on the dollar valuation for the purchase of books. Salaries and running expenses are paid out of the local school funds. Boards of education in Ohio have the control of public libraries, appointing, however, for their more immediate supervision, a board of managers, whose powers are scarcely more than that of a committee. Managers can make recommendations and nominate the employees of the library, but can make no appointments and vote no money. All their action may be supervised and reversed by the board of education. "The board of managers so constituted," says the statute, "shall at all times be under the control of the board of education, both as to their authority and tenure of office." The statute of Indiana is similar to that of Ohio. The obvious objection to this system is that the real control of the library is with a board of many members who were appointed for other duties, and have not the time or inclination to make themselves familiar with the details of library management. They are required to vote upon subjects on which they have little or no practical knowledge. The library statute

of Illinois in a measure obviates this objection. It creates an independent board of directors, who have full control of all the affairs of the library and of its funds. This board is appointed by the mayor and confirmed by the city council. In cities of less than one hundred thousand inhabitants, a tax of one mill on the dollar may be levied, and in cities of more than that population one-fifth of a mill. This tax would give in Chicago an income of $65,000 a year to the library. The city council may, however, cut the levy down to a smaller sum than the law allows as a maximum. The income of a library, be it larger or smaller, should be uniform, and not subject to the vote of a department of the city government which is liable to have fits of liberality and economy. None of these statutes has any validity unless accepted by the city or town.

It seems hardly necessary to remark that a board of directors should be selected from the most intelligent, cultivated, and influential citizens of the community. It is very desirable also that a liberal private subscription and partial endowment, if possible, should be made at the outset with which to make the first purchase of books. The regular tax levy will not be sufficient for this purpose unless it be allowed to accumulate for several years; while it will be sufficient to meet the running expenses from year to year and keep the library supplied with new books. Communities are impatient when taxed year after year without seeing the results. There is danger, if a tax be laid, and the opening of the library be postponed for a long period, that the interest in the enterprise will decline and the citizens withdraw their consent to be taxed. Never buy books on credit; never embarrass the library by anticipating its income; and do not open to the public till there are books enough on the shelves to make, in your community, a respectable collection.

If there be a stock or subscription library in the town, or a literary society possessing books, bring such motives and arguments to bear upon their owners that they will present them as the foundation of a public library. One well furnished and thrifty library in a town under good management, is much more serviceable to all concerned than several small and scattered collections. Before any selection of books is made it is well to give a general and urgent invitation to the citizens to send in, as donations, such books as they can spare from their

household libraries. Every family has books and pamphlets which they have read, and which thrifty housekeepers can spare without feeling that the gift is a sacrifice. This general contribution will furnish a large amount of excellent reading, and will save the expense of purchasing these books.

FORMATION AND ORGANIZATION OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Mr. R. R. Bowker here calls attention to the belief that "every citizen should have free access to books" and surveys many methods that have been tried, some discarded and others developed for obtaining support, books and a building and so making this belief a reality.

Richard Rogers Bowker, editor, publisher and author, was born at Salem, Massachussetts in 1848, and graduated from the College of the City of New York. He began publishing *The Library Journal* in 1876, *The Publisher's Weekly* in 1879 and *The American Catalog* in 1884. He has held many library offices, and has been active in business and civic life as well.

The statistics of libraries show that in the 5338 public libraries of the country (over three hundred volumes each) there are in all but twenty million books, less than one book to every three persons in the nation, or one book to every two persons of reading age and ability. Even this statement does not show the full extent of the field for library development. In Massachusetts, for instance, and in other eastern states there are nearly three books per head of population, reducing the average in some of the extreme western and southern states as low as one book to eighteen people. The field for the extension of the public library system is thus wide beyond the possibility of filling it for generations to come.

It has become a settled principle of our reading civilization that every citizen should have free access to books, although there have been and always will be differences of opinion whether the public should look to the state or local community to provide such books by taxation or whether it should by its own exertions and by the help of the richer and more liberal minded provide free libraries for itself. The series of articles

which this paper opens, is intended to suggest simply and briefly, in view of the library progress of recent years, how public libraries may best be organized and administered. A great body of information on these subjects may be found in the Government Report of 1876 (especially Mr. W. F. Poole's article, p. 76-504), and in the successive volumes of the *Library Journal.* But within the past ten years great strides have been made in every detail of library administration, and the number of questions still asked throughout the country shows that every few years these subjects must be written over again.

There is shadowy mention of a public library in Boston in a will of 1674, and in the town records of 1683 and 1695, and a "library-room in the town-house" is mentioned in 1686, but whatever this beginning of public libraries in America was, it came to an end in 1747. Franklin founded what he calls "the mother of all the North American subscription libraries," that of the American Philosophical Society (now the Philadelphia Library Society), whose first books were received from London in 1732; the librarian, in attendance one hour on Wednesday and two on Saturday, might "permit" any civil gentleman to read but none other than subscribers to take away books, "Mr. James Logan alone excepted;" and this was the pattern of most of the early American libraries, other than those of the colleges. Franklin's library work produced more result in France than in his own country, for the *Société Franklin,* an organization not patterned here or in England, was founded there in 1862 for promoting and maintaining small provincial libraries. The most curious of these early libraries was the "revolving library," the gift of Sir William Pepperell and others, which travelled about the parishes of Kittery and York, Maine.

The real start of the American public library system was in the school library plan of the state of New York, broached by Governor Clinton in 1827. In 1831, the state placed "Hall's Lectures on School-Keeping" in every school district; in 1835, the voters of any school district were authorized to levy a tax of $20 to start and $10 annually to continue a library; in 1838, a law passed appropriating $55,000 annually to the school districts to buy books and requiring them to raise a similar amount, as a result of which these school libraries in 1853 aggregated 1,604,210 volumes. The "library fund" was presently diverted,

in part to teachers' wages, and the libraries began to disappear from dry-rot. In 1862, only 1,206,075 volumes could be accounted for, and in 1874, 831,554. The Empire State shows some remnant of the two and half millions spent for library purposes in district libraries here and there, but although it passed in 1872 a library act, the school district system proved to be rather a discourager of a better system. Subscription, society, and endowed libraries have served instead.

Massachusetts, under Horace Mann's leadership, had taken up the New York school method in 1837, but here, happily, the free-town library system came to the front. The first town grants for library purposes are supposed to have been those made by Salisbury, Conn., to extend the library given for the children of the town by Caleb Bingham in 1803. In 1833, Peterborough, N. H., devoted a part of its share of the bank tax to start a town library, and in 1848, Wayland, Mass., voted $500 to add to the like sum given by President Wayland, of Brown University, for a town library, but, the question being raised whether taxation for this purpose was legal, the taxpayers were requested to make voluntary payment. A special act chartered the Boston Public Library in 1848. These incidents preluded the first general "library laws," New Hampshire leading with that of 1849, authorizing towns to vote grants for town libraries, which should be exempt from taxation, and Massachusetts coming next with that of 1851, authorizing cities and towns to vote $1 per poll to start and 25 cents annually to maintain free libraries.

No less than twenty-one states, beginning with 1835 and continuing as late as 1876, had provided laws of one sort or another for school district libraries, some of them being for libraries for the use of school-children and others, as in the case of the New York act, provisions for a public library system which made the school district the unit. The key to the failure of such systems as that of New York state was in the fact that a district of this sort was too small; that the library so gathered did not amount to enough to make its preservation an object, or to arouse and maintain public interest in its further development. Unfortunately, where such laws exist they have, in too many cases, hindered the development of the town library method, which has been found to be the best working plan.

Twenty or more states and territories have now passed pub-

lic library laws, essentially on the town system, although in some cases, as that of the New York act of 1872, the acts were so resultless that their very existence was forgotten. In the Government Report (p. 38-59) will be found an analysis of the earlier acts for school libraries, and in the *Library Journal* (v. 2, p. 7-12) is an account of state library legislation by Dr. Poole and two years later (v. 4, p. 262-7) a continuation by Dr. Homes, which is usually supplemented by successive reports of the A. L. A. Committee on Library Legislation. They may, in general, be divided into two kinds: the short laws, which follow the Massachusetts and New Hampshire model, simply authorizing towns to levy a tax and form a library after their own methods, and the Illinois law, which has practically been adopted in Wisconsin and other western states, and also in Connecticut, providing minute directions for the organization and control of local libraries. The laws will be found in full in the *Library Journal*. It is to be regretted that a model law which was to be prepared by Dr. Homes, combining the best working features of the several laws, has never yet been presented.

Of course, in organizing a new library in any state which has a library law, the first work is to study thoroughly the existing provisions, and in the missionary work of obtaining laws where they do not exist it is well to consider all existing laws, with the purpose of adopting those provisions which seem locally of the most use. It may be stated briefly that a board in which a large proportion of members holds over from year to year, new elections being made by the town council or similar body to fill expirations, and a provision for a tax within a certain maximum and above a certain minimum, which shall provide at least for the continuous expense of a library over bad years are generally considered desiderata.

But it is often well, whether the library is ultimately to be supported by the state or is to be developed by the organization of citizens, to start the collection of books quietly, as a nucleus for greater things. A local book club which keeps its volumes instead of selling them is often a capital beginning for a public library, and the account of the Hand-to-Hand Book Club, which is printed in this number, may serve as a model for the organization of such associations. The essential principle of a book club is that, by joining together where there

is no library, ten people may for the same money obtain joint possession of ten books instead of individual possession of one; and, as a rule, it does not seem that any less books are bought because of the formation of such joint stock companies. If, also, some member of such a book club or some interested person will make it his or her special work to preserve the newspapers of the town or vicinity, clippings about the place and the people who belong to it or have gone from it, and such pamphlets or books as have a local bearing, another important feature of a local library will be provided for. As the club obtains a larger number of books than its members keep constantly in use, it is practicable to make such a collection a lending library in a modest way, if any lady has the public spirit to act as librarian, or if there is a headquarters at which the books can be kept, and at which different members of the club may serve in turn. Often books will be given to increase such a collection; but there should be rigid care in rejecting those white elephants of donations, such as government reports or unusable trash which require expense and trouble for storage, and which, however valuable in their place, are not called for in a small public library.

Another method of making a start is for some one or more enterprising persons to inaugurate the work as a voluntary public library committee. For this purpose, as recommended by Mr. Pendelton, it is worth while to obtain the voting lists or other lists of the inhabitants of the town, and to enlist the aid of the ladies of the place or of enterprising young people and to make a thorough canvass for subscriptions to start a library, dividing the list carefully among the several solicitors, indicating to the solicitors about how much each person may fairly be expected to give, arranging the subscription-books with a page for each higher amount and going first to those most likely to give liberally. It has been wisely recommended that whatever amount may be raised in this way shall be divided into two parts—the one for the immediate purchase of books; the other in part for the opening expenses of a library, and in part to tide over bad years in the future, so that no year may pass without some expenditure for furnishing books.

Such a collection being started, it is not impossible that some rich man of the place can be induced to provide a library building, which he will usually prefer to have called by his own

name, and often it is found most practicable to begin with a nucleus of an art gallery as well as of a library. If the National Library Extension Society should ever be organized and become effective according to the plan presented by Mr. Sponable, in the December *Library Journal,* that would be of great help in promoting the development of local libraries; or if the rich man is not forthcoming and there is no state law authorizing taxation, those interested may begin a fund for the erection of a proper building or the hiring permanently of a suitable room, by some small contribution per month or year, which if well invested produces astonishing results in the course of a few years.

One of the safest methods for providing for the future, hitherto devised, was the method devised by a liberal citizen of Baltimore, who gave $1,000,000 to the city on condition that it should be invested, and the equivalent of the interest of the investment paid over for the continuing support of a public library, either directly from the investment or by taxation to an equivalent amount. In this way the city became the trustee of a fund of which the principal was safely placed in such wise that the lack of popular interest for a year or two would not interfere with its continuance. Where a sufficient fund is gathered by private subscription it is worth while to keep this method in mind as a means of providing suitably for the future of a town library.

Whatever the start it is vitally necessary to have enough books and enough fresh books to keep public interest alive, and a working librarian, whether paid or voluntary, or whether the whole or part of the person's time is used, who will be an efficient means of keeping alive interest between the people and the books. This is the *sine qua non* of success, and it is because of the failures in this direction that the New York school district library law came to naught. In regard to the selection of books, the choice of library-room or building, and other points, the special topics will be covered in successive papers of this series by librarians who are specially qualified to speak of each subject in turn.

BUSINESS METHODS IN LIBRARY MANAGEMENT

This paper was presented by Frederick M. Crunden then librarian of the St. Louis Public Library, at the Thousand Islands Conference of the American Library Association in 1887, and indicates the change that was then taking place in library administration. The modern library was beginning to appear—the library that looks outward toward serving the people rather than inward to the care of books, and depends more upon the personality and ability of the librarian than upon rules and regulations.—A sketch of Mr. Crunden appears in Volume 1.

It is not many years since the popular mind pictured the librarian as an elderly man of severe and scholarly aspect, with scanty gray hair, bent form, and head thrust forward from the habit of peering through his spectacles along rows of books in search of some coveted volume. He was supposed always to have led a studious and ascetic life, to have had his boyhood and youth in a previous state of existence, and, since becoming a librarian, to have lived wholly in the world of books, without any knowledge, thought, or care regarding the world of men and things. Nothing more was expected of him than that he should be erudite and orderly, know where to find his books, and be ready to point out sources of information wanted by his first cousin, the professor, or by another class of individuals, who also stood apart from the rest of mankind, and were regarded as gods of Parnassus or as imps of Bohemia. Of late years authorship has become more common. Every one has a friend who writes for publication in some form. Authors are, perhaps, less exalted but more respectable than formerly. The professor has long since been recognized as sometimes young and athletic and jovial; and for the last ten years the librarian also has been abroad, and is now becoming pretty well known. He is found to be generally young in years and always

young in spirit. When librarians first came together, each, I believe, was surprised to see how young the others were. In '79, when I attended my first convention at Boston, I expected to find myself among a body of patriarchs. Dr. Poole, I thought, must be a bent and decrepit old man; and Mr. Dewey, though I had only lately heard of him, I had pictured as a little, withered, bespectacled old Dryasdust, who had given his life to the development of his decimal system, and was warning young men against the dangers of diffusiveness. Subsequent observation has shown me that librarians not only *have had* a youth, but that they find in these conventions the means of continually renewing it. There were two or three who impressed me in '79 as perhaps a little old, who last year were completely rejuvenated.

The librarian, then, of the present day is not like his predecessor of a generation ago; and other and different duties are imposed upon him, and other offices expected from him. There still, however, remains considerable misconception regarding his proper functions. When I entered the profession I received numerous congratulations on the great opportunity afforded me for gratifying my taste for reading. Most of my friends, one after another, have learned that my duties are numerous and varied, and that my reading for personal improvement or pleasure must be done in the hours common to all for rest and recreation. Still in the popular conception the librarian combines business and pleasure by spending a great part, if not the greater part, of his time in reading books. Very few laymen, even among the better-informed, realize how closely the conduct of a library resembles the management of a business; and even among professionals there may be occasion for emphasizing the value of a more thorough adoption of business methods by librarians and by library directors.

The primary lessons of a library apprentice are the same as those of a boy who enters a business house. He must learn neatness, order, accuracy, punctuality, and despatch. And with all these, if he is to succeed in the issue department, which to the public represents the library, he must cultivate politeness and equability of temper. He must treat every applicant as a salesman does a customer. He must not let him go away without the article he wants if it is in stock; and if it is not, he should show his concern by promising to give

notice of the deficiency, and supply it later if possible. As the youth goes up the ladder of promotion, all these talents and acquirements find a wider field for exercise; and, as subordinates look to him for direction, other faculties are brought into play, and other qualities are required. One of these is a liking, an enthusiasm, for library work and a thorough belief in the particular institution served. A librarian or an assistant in a position of any authority who does not "swear by" his library cannot do justice to his work; and on business principles his services had better be dispensed with. The head of a St. Louis jobbing firm told me not long since that he would keep no one in his employ who did not think Blank, Dash & Co. the greatest hat and cap house in the west. Any salesman known to hold different views would be instantly discharged.

The application of business principles also demands a certain degree of loyalty on the part of subordinates toward the chief officer, as well as to the institution. Disaffection is contagious; a house divided against itself cannot stand; and a board of directors is not acting in accordance with approved business methods if it does not speedily secure harmony of action by removing the disturbing element. In one of the large manufacturing establishments of St. Louis the rule is that any man who cannot get along with the foreman of the shops is at once dismissed. There is no investigation, no hearing of complaints. The company look to the foreman for results, and recognize that responsibility must be accompanied by corresponding authority; and, as long as their superintendent satisfies them, the men must suit him.

A chief librarian is in a position analogous to that occupied by the head of a commercial house. He must know his wares, i.e., his books; he must know his customers, the community; he must study their wants; and, like a merchant of the highest type, he will endeavor to develop in them a taste for better articles. Like a merchant also, he must advertise his business. He must let the people know what the library offers to them, whether gratis or for subscription fee. All the more is this necessary in the latter case.

To be more exact in my comparison, the duties of a chief executive of a library differ in no essential from those of a manager of a stock company carrying on a commercial enterprise. In both cases there is a board of directors to dictate

the general policy, which the manager is to carry out. In both cases the details are left to him; and, if he occupies a proper position in the esteem and confidence of the directors, they rely on him largely for suggestions as to measures for furthering the objects in view. If he cannot be so relied on, he is not fit for the place, and another man should be appointed.

It seems hardly necessary to call attention to the librarian's function as purchasing agent, in which his judgment, or the lack of it, is a direct gain or loss, greater or less according to circumstances.

The librarian, like the business superintendent, is expected to organize his subordinates so as to secure the most efficient service at the least outlay for salaries. To this end the largest powers should be given him in the appointment and removal of assistants, especially those upon whom he must most immediately depend. Let him have assistants of his own choosing, and then hold him to a strict accountability for results. If from personal favoritism or bad judgment he selects lazy or incompetent people, let him suffer the consequences. If he possesses the requisite discernment and powers of observation, the innate selfishness of human nature may be relied on for the rest. The success of the library is his success; and he may be trusted not to jeopardize it by surrounding himself with incompetent friends. The business man who does this ends in bankruptcy; and so must the librarian—bankruptcy of position, reputation, and self respect.

In keeping his institution before the public, the librarian may profit by the methods of the business man. In the case of a public library, he will generally find the local press willing to render very valuable assistance by publishing news concerning the library; such as noteworthy gifts or purchases, reports of directors' meetings, abstracts of annual reports, and occasionally an appeal for aid or an explanation of some feature of the library which may be of public interest. Mercantile and other class libraries, though not on an equal footing with public libraries in this respect, are still in a measure public institutions, and may therefore expect a share of the notice which a liberal press accords to all things that are for the general good.

How much the press of St. Louis has contributed to the

building up of the Public Library there, it would be difficult to estimate. Its willingness to assist in such work is attested by four large scrapbooks filled with clippings relating to the library, which furnish in outline a sketch of the institution from its organization to the present day. It goes without saying that no public enterprise can succeed without the help of the press; and I think the converse is true, that no paper can achieve great success which ignores public interests.

Library affairs doubtless do not interest as many people as a base-ball match or a notable burglary or divorce suit; but it can hardly be that, among the mass of readers of a great daily, there are not a respectable number who would rather hear something about the new books added to the libraries than to learn that a John Smith, of Wayback Corners, Tex., was killed in a drunken brawl, or that a William Wilson, of Skrigglesville, Me., had his thumb cut off by a circular saw, or any of the thousand and one petty incidents that make up the regular columns of Crimes and Casualties.

As an illustration of immediate results from a press notice. Some years ago one of our papers published a communication from me asking citizens to give to the library old directories and other books of no further use to them, especially anything relating to St. Louis. Within a week or two sixty or seventy-five volumes and a number of pamphlets were received. How many subsequent gifts this brought, I cannot tell; but nearly two years afterward sixty-eight volumes and twenty-four pamphlets, the greater part popular novels and juveniles, in excellent condition, were received, accompanied by a note stating that the donor had sent them in response to my request, which she had happened to see in an old paper.

But over and above all this, the librarian will find his advantage in the business man's use of printer's ink. Four or five years ago I distributed through the schools and throughout the central portions of the city seventy-five thousand circulars. During the next six months more than three times as many new members were added as in the previous year. To these circulars the increase was largely due. Last December and January the board adopted my suggestion to insert regular advertisements in the daily papers. An expenditure of $100 brought an addition of at least $200 from new subscribers. Some of these probably had lived in the city for years and

had never before heard of this library of sixty-five thousand volumes; and at this day I dare say they are thousands of old citizens who are in a similar benighted condition, despite all our efforts for their enlightenment. Others had a vague idea that there was such a place; but it would not have occurred to them to become members if they had not seen the suggestion in the newspaper.

An eminently legitimate and proper mode of advertising is the distribution of a large edition of the annual report; but methods must vary with circumstances, and from time to time new ones must be devised.

I have found a personal canvass in the schools productive of immediate results. I take a book or two with me, or sometimes send a package of ten or twelve books. I dilate upon the benefit and the pleasure of reading, explain at how little cost these may be obtained through a membership in the library, putting it at the price per week, exhibit the books with appropriate comments, and end by reading an entertaining extract from one of them. In short, I play to the best of my ability the role of a commercial drummer.

I have said the librarian is expected to do so and so. Expected by whom? Well, to some extent and in some particulars, by the public, whom he has in the last few years taught to look for what previous generations never thought of. But the highest and heaviest demands are those of conscience and professional pride. The public is vastly more exacting than it used to be; but the true librarian keeps always in advance of his community, and constantly educates it to make greater demands upon him. The body of the profession fixes a high and ever advancing standard, which each individual must strive to reach, or allow himself to be shelved among specimens of the antique.

The modern librarian, then, must be, as of old, a scholar and a gentleman; but, more than that, he must be a good business man. And with all this, unless he have the industry and endurance of a Napoleon and the patience of a Job, he shall sometimes fail to satisfy his constituents and at all times fall short of his own ideal.

MANAGEMENT OF SMALL LIBRARIES

To this paper, presented at the American Library Association Conference at Atlanta, Marilla Waite Freeman brings her own personal experience, which is typical of that of others, showing that in the ideal small library at the opening of the 20th century, "management" involved personal relation to the public, attractive arrangement of rooms and books, interest in children, clubs, schools and firemen, publicity in all forms;—in short, contact with every phase of our complicated modern world—and casts into the background concentration upon technical details.

Miss Freeman was born at Honeoye Falls, N. Y., graduated from the University of Chicago in 1897 and took a short course of library training in the New York State Library School in 1900. She organized and was librarian of two libraries the first at Michigan City, Indiana, 1897-1902, the second the Carnegie Library of Davenport, Iowa, 1902-1905. She then aided in the organization and administration of the Louisville, Kentucky library and was its reference librarian until 1910. From 1911 to 1921 Miss Freeman was librarian of Goodwyn Institute, Memphis, Tenn. During this time she studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1921. She then took charge of the Foreign Law Department of the Harvard Law School from which she was called to be librarian of the Main Library of the Cleveland Public Library in 1922. Miss Freeman was elected first vice-president of the American Library Association in 1923.

The public library should not be only the educational center of the town or city, and often its art center as well, but it

may become, in the language of the new sociology, a center of social service. Just here lies the great opportunity of the librarian of the small library. She is fortunate in her privilege of personal contact with her public, and upon her depends, in large measure, the atmosphere of the library. She should be alert, tactful, a gracious hostess, ready alike with helpful suggestions to the timid or the uncertain, and with quick, intelligent service for the man who knows what he wants and wants it at once. Let her, if possible, find some time for personal intercourse with her readers. If she knows, as she should, the books she handles, and remembers, as the "small librarian" may, not only the names and faces, but the differing personalities of her readers, she may quietly and unobtrusively direct the whole trend of the intellectual life of her town. She should be accessible, not only within the library, but out of it. Let her not rebel at being known as "the library lady" by the small boys on the street. Let her be ready, not to introduce indeed, but to respond willingly to talk of books and of the library, even at those social functions where "shop" is supposed to be tabooed.

She should carry out in every way the open door policy, not merely by opening the doors and waiting for people to come in, but by going out to seek them. Many people hesitate long and timidly over the preliminary visit to the library for a card. I like the suggestion of Mr. Foss, of Somerville, Mass., in *Public Libraries,* March, 1899, that a personal canvass of the town be made, so that every man, woman, and child may be offered a library card. And, above all, when people have come, let them be made to feel at home.

The aim and general attitude of the librarian being thus outlined, how shall she put it into active force?—that is, by what channels can she reach the people at large, and, when reached, how hold them?

Since this is the day of the children, the first thought of the librarian may well be for them. And, first of all, do not shut out bright and eager children by the age limit. If there must be a test, let it be nothing more than the child's ability to write his own name. The pride of ownership and of responsibility should not be denied him. Often the younger children take better care of books than their older brothers and sisters. If possible, have a special room for the children. If

not, resort may be had to a children's alcove or corner. The smallest library may at least find space in a corner of its reading-room for a special table for the children, made lower than the usual size, and, if it can be managed, cases with some or all, of the children's books should be near their tables.

In our library we are fortunate in having a room which can be devoted to the children, and which is at the same time so situated that it can be under the personal supervision of the librarian. The children's books are in wall-cases about the room, grouped according to subjects, under various attractive headings, such as Stories of long ago, Fairy tales, Indian stories, Poetry, Lives of great men and women. The children may make their own selections, except as they desire help, with no restriction other than careful treatment of the books. We have considered the organization of a children's library league, for the protection of the books, but our town is not too large for individual work with the children, and we have found the use of the Maxson book-mark sufficient thus far.

We are fortunate, also, in the possession of a room which may be used as a class-room in connection with our work with the schools. The room is furnished with tables and with chairs sufficient to seat 50 pupils and their teacher. Each grade in the schools, from grades five to eight, has the use of this room for one afternoon session of each month. All the eighth grades come the first week, the seventh grades the next, and so on through the month. At their grade meetings the teachers determine upon the subject which they will take up at their next visit to the library, and notify us a week in advance. Books on that subject sufficient in number to supply each pupil in the grade, and suited to the age of the pupils, are sent up to the room, and each child is assigned a topic upon which to write a short composition from the material furnished. When a pupil has found all he can from one source books are exchanged, and thus each child comes into contact with several books which may be new to him. The subjects chosen are those in which different grades are at the time specially interested in school. Thus last week the seventh grades, which are reviewing in school the geography of Europe, had for their library subject travel in Europe and description of various European countries and cities. For this grade we utilized, in addition to the regular books of travel, such descriptive stories

as "Hans Brinker" and the "Witch Winnie" series. A younger grade took up stories, battles, and incidents of the American Revolution. In the spring and fall nature-study afternoons are popular. A specially valuable feature of the plan is the opportunity it gives the librarian for short talks to the pupils on the use of the library, the reference books and card catalog, accompanied by practical object lessons and tests. The school children are unanimously enthusiastic over their library afternoon, and we find the plan very successful in stimulating their interest in good reading and in forming the library habit along right lines. With libraries where there is no room available for such work, there may be at least an occasional visit to the library from teacher and pupils for the purpose of becoming familiar with the location and use of the reference books and other resources of the library.

We have found the monthly visits helpful in the opportunity they give the librarian to know the teachers individually, and to come into sympathetic relation with them and their work. The close co-operation that should exist between the library and the schools will be most firmly grounded upon a personal and individual interest on the part of the librarian in the teachers and in their plans for work and for personal culture. Special privileges to teachers, short talks at the teachers' meetings, personal visits to the schools for talks to the pupils—all these things help to strengthen the tie between library and schools.

The librarian should keep in close touch with the school work, informing herself in advance of the order of studies and subjects for debate, so that the wants of pupils may be promptly supplied. The teachers may be asked to furnish lists of special topics to be taken up in geography, history, and other studies, and references may be made for each topic on separate cards, to be included in the catalog. In advance of all special days which are celebrated in the schools, such as Washington's Birthday, Arbor Day, and Memorial Day, lists of references and suitable selections should be compiled. These lists, which may be fastened upon the library bulletin board, sent to the teachers, and printed in the daily papers, will serve a double purpose, that of answering the demands of the children for "pieces" to speak, and of helping the teachers to prepare their programs.

The question of free access to the shelves is a puzzling one.

Certainly the public should be made to feel at home among its own books, and certainly the experience of libraries with "open shelves" goes to prove that the public may be trusted among its own books. For the larger libraries, such a plan as Mr. Foster's "Standard library" (*see* Providence Public Library *Bulletin,* October, 1898, or *Library Journal,* December, 1898), or the remarkably successful open-shelf department of the Buffalo Public Library, seem to have solved the problem. The same plan may be applied, in miniature, to small libraries in which the construction of the building or other conditions make indiscriminate access impracticable. In these cases, one side of the delivery-room, or at least an alcove or corner, may be fitted with shelves accessible to the public, upon which may be placed a selected collection of books from all classes in the library, including not only some of the newest and some of the most popular, but also some of the "best" books—books upon which Time has set the seal of its approval. This open-shelf corner or department should in no way interfere with the privilege to teachers, students, and all who wish of examining the entire collection in the main bookstack. Indeed, it may well be adopted even where free access is the rule, for the convenience of the many readers to whom a large array of volumes brings embarrassment and uncertainty. In the first confusion and excitement attendant upon the opening of a new library, this plan of partial access may be made simply a preliminary step to the inauguration of open shelves, after the novelty shall have worn away. Certainly the access of the public to the shelves, whether in whole or in part, not only brings a great saving of time to public and librarian alike, but is a source of that freedom and satisfaction which should inhere in an institution whose first aim is "public happiness."

Reference work similar to that done for the schools should also be done for the literary clubs of a town. The library may furnish material and aid in the making of programs, lists of references on the general topics of work, to be printed with the program, and lists of references on special subjects for individual members of the club. We find that a room in our building, the use of which is given to literary clubs for their meetings, has helped to effect a strong co-operation between the library and the club members.

The use of pictures in connection with the school and club

work is helpful. For this purpose may be utilized illustrations from duplicate or worn-out magazines. In our library we have, through requests in the newspapers, received many volumes and odd numbers of valuable magazines. These are primarily used for the completion of volumes and sets, but from all duplicate numbers the best illustrations are cut, mounted on heavy gray paper or bristol board, and classified like the books. Groups of them, illustrating various countries, art subjects, etc., are loaned to teachers, to literary clubs, or to individuals. These pictures are also utilized in the library for wall exhibits and illustrated bulletins.

Two large, portable screens are covered with groups of pictures on various subjects, the soft, gray mounting paper making an effective background. For Christmas one of these screens was covered with a fine collection of Madonnas, some of them taken from magazines and illustrated papers, many loaned by friends of the library. The other screen bore a collection of illuminated holiday magazine covers, mounted on gray paper. On a large wall space was placed an exhibit of gay holiday posters. The screens are at present used for reproductions of pictures by modern artists, in illustration of a course of University Extension lectures on art, the collection of pictures on the library screen being changed each week to correspond with the subject of the lecture for that week.

Every library, however small, should have a bulletin board and blackboard placed in a conspicuous position, to which may be fastened, or upon which may be written in bright colored chalks, attractive lists of new books, birthday bulletins of some noted person accompanied by his or her picture, anything and everything, in brief, which will attract the attention of vistors and encourage them to use the library.

Among the ways and means of gaining the attention and interest of the public, the library exhibit is one of the most popular. An exhibit of photographs taken by local amateurs; an "Indian day," with a collection of local Indian relics, Indian pictures mounted and grouped on the wall, including Burbank's highly colored studies, with some new "Indian books" for the boys and with all the old ones attractively displayed; a "Nature day" in the spring or early fall, with decorations of wild flowers, with an exhibit of books relating to birds, animals, plants, and out-of-door life in general, the walls covered with

the beautiful colored bird and animal plates issued by the Nature Study Publishing Co., of Chicago, perhaps a few rare birds in cages; these and innumerable other ideas may be effectively used. Art exhibits are a most pleasing and legitimate part of the library's work, from the collection of mounted illustrations cut from the magazines, or the local loan collection, to the exhibition of original drawings and paintings loaned by Scribner's Sons and other publishing houses, or the beautiful reproductions of the world's great pictures loaned by the Helman-Taylor Co. and other art firms.

Scarcely second in importance to the work with the children and the schools is the opportunity of the library among the working classes. In any towns large enough to sustain a public library there are likely to be more or less industrial centers, and to the mass of workers which such centers gather about them, the library should make a special appeal. Let us hope, primarily, that it is situated upon a main business street where the factory people as they stroll by of an evening may find it convenient to drop into the brightly-lighted reading-room. The best bait will be a goodly number of clean, entertaining, illustrated periodicals, popular monthlies, reliable reviews, illustrated weeklies, and wholesome "funny papers." Try to have if possible at least one semi-technical magazine for each class of workers represented in the town, and the *Scientific American* and its supplements for all inventive boys and men. With a large German population we find two or three illustrated German papers a good drawing card, and we keep on file the local German daily as well as those printed in English.

We have also a slowly increasing collection of German books, believing that the German working people, many of whom can read only in their native tongue, should share with others the privileges of the library and of access to the printed page. Many German parents, too timid to come to the library themselves, will send their children, who, taking advantage of the two-book privilege, will draw a German book for the father or mother and an English book for themselves.

If it is the aim of the library to draw to it all classes, there should be at least a few books suited to the wants of each individual class. A little group of carefully chosen, up-to-date books on electrical and mechanical engineering, locomotive construction, wood-working machinery, or textile

industries, according to local needs, will often prove the best possible investment, even for a small library, in a manufacturing town. Superintendents or foremen of factories may be interested by requests for suggestions from them in the selection of technical books, and the intelligent workingman who can find at the library just the book he wants on electricity or foundry practice becomes from that moment one of the library's warmest adherents.

But given the book and the man who wants it, how is the one to be drawn to the attention of the other? The first article of the modern librarian's creed should be "advertise." Advertising is one of the fundamentals of success in the business world, and why not in the library world? From the time your first instalment of books is ready for the public your watchword should be "Make it known."

Doubtless the best advertising medium is the local newspaper, which will carry the library news into many homes. In it may be printed lists of the new books, introduced by a striking headline, and by brief notes or reviews on some of the most timely or valuable among the books. Lists of books on special topics or for special days should frequently appear, and a half or quarter column of "Library notes," calling attention to gifts of pictures or books to the library, to special exhibits or other library matters, will help to keep the public interested. If your list is one of special interest ask your editor to have the type saved for further use. It may be taken to a small job press, and 500 or 1000 or more copies may be struck off for distribution at the library. The expense involved in this will be slight. Some newspapers will print these lists free, if such a notice as the following be inserted in the list: "Printed by the courtesy of the *Daily News.*" If there is more than one paper in the community furnish library news and lists to them all, thereby making them all friends of the library. Where there are but two papers, of about equal standing, it is well to send exactly the same copy to each and divide the library's job-printing between them.

If your town has one or more trade journals send them lists on various local industries, on electricity, and on labor questions. An excellent list for Labor day was published in the *Union Advocate,* St. Joseph, Mo., Sept. 3, 1898.

A most successful means of advertising the library among

the workingmen is by means of bulletins and lists posted in factories, car-shops, electric power-houses, etc. In every department of every factory and industrial centre in our community we have placed one of the little wall-boxes, originated by Mr. Wright, of the St. Joseph Public Library, containing a number of library application blanks and labelled with the following inscription:

PUBLIC LIBRARY,
EIGHTH AND SPRING STREETS

BOOKS LOANED FREE.

Take one of these applications, fill it out, have some real estate owner sign as your guarantor, then bring it or send it to the library and books will be loaned you without charge.

Library open from 9.30 A.M. *to* 9 P.M.

Each of these boxes is accompanied by a printed or typewritten list of books—books on electricity for the power-house —on locomotive construction, pattern making, metal work, engineering, etc., for the car factory and railroad shops, and attractive titles of books for girls and women in all departments of factories where women are employed. The results from this one form of advertising have been more satisfactory than from any other employed. The library wall boxes may also be placed in hotels, railway stations, and other public places.

In these days when the A B C of social service—Altruism, Brotherhood, Co-operation—is familiar to all, the library must be indeed poor and small and self-centered which can do nothing to extend its privileges to those, at least in its own immediate environment, to whom the library itself is not accessible. Poor and remote parts of town, or adjacent rural districts, may be made centres for small travelling libraries, little groups of books sent out from the main library to some home or small store from which as a centre they may be issued to the people of the neighborhood. To children too far away to reach the central library, little home libraries may be sent. A home library is defined as "a group of 10 or more poor children, a

library of perhaps 20 carefully selected books placed in the home of one of the children, and a sympathetic visitor, usually a woman, who meets the children once a week, talks over the books which they have read at their homes, and interests and amuses them for an hour in any way she choses." Each group contains both boys and girls from eight to fifteen years of age.

The members of a fire department, a police force, or a life-saving crew, are quick to appreciate an effort to provide them interesting reading for the long, monotonous hours in the stations. Regular travelling libraries may be sent them each month, or a more informal arrangement made. At the life-saving station in Michigan City the captain gives leave of absence to one of the men once a week to exchange books at the library for the crew. A light, compact wooden case, suitable also as a receptacle for the books at the station, is convenient for carrying them back and forth.

Suggestions might be multiplied in regard to the opportunities for usefulness in the management of the small library. Much may depend, it is true, upon the assistance and the resources which the librarian may have at her command, but more will depend, in the end, upon the unwearying patience and energy and enthusiasm of the librarian and her band of helpers. Kipling has painted for us at once the ultimate ideal and the ultimate reward of the earnest worker, in that happy state where

No one shall work for money, and no one shall work for fame;
But each for the joy of the working, and each in his separate star,
Shall draw the Thing as he sees It, for the God of Things as They are.

LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION ON AN INCOME OF FROM $1,000 TO $5,000 A YEAR: ESSENTIALS AND NON-ESSENTIALS

Balancing his knowledge of a large library with experience in two small ones, Samuel H. Ranck, of the Grand Rapids Public Library, gives practical advice on such questions as legal status, governing boards, buildings, books, records and librarians.

A sketch of Mr. Ranck is to be found in Volume 1.

The term "library administration" as used in this paper is limited to the organization, operation, and maintenance or growth of a library—the plans and methods of making the library an efficient means of service to the whole community. The questions to be considered are, What shall be included? What is essential? and What shall be excluded? What is non-essential? when the total income of the library ranges from $1000 to $5000 a year; for an institution whose income is $1000 must omit many things that are done in the institution whose income is fifty times that sum.

We must first of all realize the wide difference between "essential," "desirable," and "non-essential." Those things are essential which, when they are omitted, make it impossible for the library to exercise its function; to wit, to spread through the community the knowledge—the experience, real or imaginary—the race has accumulated, and has recorded in books—here used to include all printed matter.

The library must first of all live, and that means a *growing* existence. It must therefore have the things that make for life and growth—means of subsistence and intelligent direction; otherwise it will die, or at least become devitalized, fossilized. The desirable things are those that assist the library to perform its functions to a wider and better extent, corresponding to the comforts of our family life, carpets on the floors of our homes, modern plumbing, etc. The non-essentials are those

which may or may not help in the performance of function to a wider or better extent—corresponding to the luxuries of life, automobiles, horses, and carriages in the city, etc. All these things grow into each other and the non-essentials in one environment may be absolutely essential in another. In this paper it shall be my effort to lay stress on the essentials for the type of library whose annual income is not less than $1000 or more than $5000. The desirable and non-essential will rarely be referred to; for it is the essential that we must ever keep in mind. It must also be remembered that these essentials apply to a greater or less degree to all kinds of libraries, whether large or small.

By way of personal explanation, permit me to refer to my own experience with small libraries. I do this because after this papers was assigned to me some one remarked that my treatment of it would doubtless be more or less theoretical, supposing that my experience had been wholly with relatively large libraries—with libraries having incomes many times that of $5000 a year. During the four years I was in college, I worked in a library (two years as librarian) with an income of from $200 to $250 a year. All this money went into operation and growth—most of it into growth, for there were no charges for salaries or the maintenance of the building. I recall that the additions to this library in those four years were often in the neighborhood of from 500 to 1000 volumes a year and that in two years the library (then over 6000 volumes) was cataloged on cards, and that its use then, and even to-day, I am informed, is greater in many directions than the college library itself, not a stone's throw away, with its $50,000 building and large collection of books.

The other small library with which I was identified is the oldest circulating library now existing in the state of Maryland —in continuous operation as such since 1795. This library has a regular income for operation and growth of about $125 a year. For a number of years I took an active part in its management, as a member and as an official on its governing board. You will pardon me, therefore, if I have my experience in these two small libraries more or less in mind all through this paper, even though I imagine that the committee in assigning it had the public library of a village or town in mind.

In the public municipal library the first essential in its ad-

ministration is that those in charge of it should have a full knowledge, and a clear understanding, of the legal rights and duties of the library and its officers. They should know and understand the provisions of the state constitution, the state laws, and the city ordinances relating to libraries in general and in particular. This is of fundamental importance to the governing board and to the librarian. I need only refer to the fact that the two relatively large libraries with which I have been connected found it necessary to have the state legislature amend their charters in important particulars so as to prevent a possible serious loss to these libraries. The importance of these legal details was further impressed upon us in Grand Rapids by the fact that only a little over a month ago our library came near losing almost $6000 for its book fund—money that comes to it through a provision of the state constitution—because of a clerical omission in the office of the city board of education in reporting to the state superintendent of public instruction the number of children of school age in the city. As it was, legal processes had to be resorted to to protect the library, and the matter was straightened out by a special trip to Lansing and by keeping one of the county offices open after the usual time of closing on the last day of the year when the state constitution permitted a correction of the error.

Another instance of the importance of these legal details is found in the last report of the Michigan State Board of Library Commissioners, according to which, and to a recent remark by the president of that board, it appears that in the state of Michigan at least $50,000 a year is being diverted from library purposes, as provided for in the state constitution, simply because various library governing boards in the state do not know their legal rights or have refused to exercise them.

A second essential is that the governing board of the library —regardless of whether its members are appointed or elected, whether it contains three members or thirty or the ideal number of five or seven—and the librarian should have a full understanding of the functions of each, for both have very definite duties to perform in the administration of a library. The board represents the whole community and is presumably chosen to make the library an efficient means of public education

and recreation, and I take it for granted that the idea of "spoils"—politics—personal, social, or religious—is excluded from the management of the library. The board should determine the general policy of the library and its administration, regulate the scale of expenditures, salaries, etc.; and I assume that the members of the board are disposed to deal justly and fairly in regard to salaries, hours, and vacations, ever mindful of the fact that reasonably happy circumstances are essential for the best service. The position of the board, therefore, is that of stewardship for the people, and the people have a right to demand that it be exercised. If any member of the board finds that his interest is not sufficient for him to give the library the little time that is required, he owes it to the library and to the community to resign; and the community owes it to itself to remind him of this fact, should he forget it.

The librarian should be the executive officer of the board, and as such be responsible to them for the execution of the plans and purposes of the library. It is presumed that he has at least some knowledge and expertness in the profession of librarianship. The librarian, therefore, should have a free hand in developing and managing the internal and technical features of the library, control the assistants, detail the work they are to do, including in this the work of the janitor, and, in general, have full control of the detailed work of the library. As a rule and under normal circumstances the librarian should represent the library before the community and all the employees before the board. With the advice and consent of the board the librarian should have the right to employ, promote, suspend, or dismiss his assistants, again including the janitor.

The failure of governing boards to recognize these functions of the board and the librarian is a most fruitful source of misunderstanding, trouble and inefficiency in library administration. I recall cases where individual members of the board were in the habit of coming to the library and directing the librarian or the assistants as to the details of routine work—set the assistants to doing something different from what was assigned them by the librarian, set about doing things generally without consulting or regarding the librarian. When such cases arise the librarian should insist upon his rights. He is the executive officer of the whole board and not of any individual member. If the librarian is incapable of directing or

doing this work satisfactorily the board should employ another librarian and not disorganize the whole institution by attempting to right a wrong thing in the wrong way, thereby making the last condition worse than the first. I have in mind now an instance where a library was disorganized and much hard feeling engendered—a hard feeling that exists to-day, years after the occurrence—by a member of the board on her own motion coming in and moving and rearranging a large lot of books in the absence of the librarian, thereby causing great confusion. I said "her," for it was a woman on the board who did it. Is this the reason one often finds, especially among women on a library staff, a strong prejudice against women on the board? In more than one instance I have heard women say that men on governing boards are much less likely to take a hand in the details of the work. Men, it seems, are more likely to look for ultimate results, and for that reason they are more likely to permit the librarian and the staff to work them out in their own way. I cannot speak from experience on this point, for I have had men only on my library boards.

On the other hand, the deadly blight arising from lack of intelligent interest is much more likely to occur among men on a board than among women. Nothing can be more discouraging to a librarian than to have every plan for the improvement of the library held up by an uninterested, inactive board. Such a blight will in the long run affect the whole library and destroy much of its usefulnes. I believe, therefore, that on the whole the misdirected interest that may arise on the part of women is better for the library, though harder for the librarian and the staff, than the paralyzing effect that may come from the persistent lack of interest, inactivity, and inattention to obvious duties, on the part of men.

Another essential is that the librarian and the staff should know the history and spirit of the institution. They are part of an organization that has a life and a spirit, things that are rooted in the past. They can accomplish the best results only when all consciously realize the aims and purposes for which they are working. There should be a very definite plan in the mind of the librarian, and the whole staff should be taken into the scheme of the plan, so that all can work together in an atmosphere of freedom—a freedom which is soon felt by the public and which alone can produce the best results.

To a large part of the general public the library suggests a building—usually a Carnegie building; and many persons think that a building is the first thing that is necessary. (If I were a Mark Twain I should like to digress at this point to tell of some of the things that happen to a town when Mr. Carnegie offers it a library. This subject has never received adequate treatment.) As a matter of fact, a building is the last thing necessary for any library and especially a library having an income of from $1000 to $5000 a year. A building is a good thing. It makes the library mean more to the public, and it stands for and insures the permanency of the institution. It is an evidence of better things hoped for; but I believe that a library with an income of only $1000 should not have a building at all, if the maintenance of this building is to absorb practically all of its income. Let trustees have a realizing sense of what can and cannot be done with $1000 a year before assuming the fixed charges that go with a building. It is often wiser to wait for a larger income, and in the meantime much better results will be accomplished for the community if rented quarters are secured and the money put into books and the librarian. It is indeed giving a stone instead of bread when so large a proportion of the total income is absorbed in maintaining a building, starving and freezing the life out of the library for the sake of the things that count for little in the real work it has to do.

And right here I wish to call attention to one non-essential in a library building for a small library, and that is the idea that it must be fireproof. Fireproof materials cost from 25 to 30 times as much as some of the materials that would serve every purpose in the working of the library. A library building in a small town need not be built with the idea that it is competing with a safe-deposit company, where the fundamental idea is a safe place for storage. Libraries should be built and administered to keep books outside of the building as far as possible—in the hands of the readers. The few things that are really in need of safety against fire can be preserved much more cheaply in a substantial safe or vault, than in a whole building built on the vault plan, with its expensive steel stacks and shelves.

The smallest town can start a library without a building, and scores of towns bear witness to the fact that they can

erect the building when they are ready for it without waiting for some one to present it. I have a special admiration for such towns. They have the true spirit of true democracy.

If, however, it is offered a building—a Carnegie building, for example—what shall the town do? If it has no library, here is an opportunity to start one. Accept the gift. Then consult a librarian before consulting an architect. It is of the greatest importance for the small library to have its building planned so that its operation is as inexpensive as possible. Build it to save light and coal; build it to save work in keeping it neat and clean—mahogany furniture, polished brass fixtures, and marble floors, for example, add immensely to the cost of janitor service; build it to allow for growth and extension; and finally, build so that one person can control all the rooms and do all the work for the public in all but the busiest hours.

I believe in fine buildings, handsome fittings, and all that goes with them; but it is a sin against the community when these things are put in and administered at the expense of the service that really counts in forming the lives and characters of the citizens. Such things are desirable—not essential. What a fine, large building means in expense for its care and maintenance may be realized from the fact that the new Ryerson Public Library building in Grand Rapids costs in one year nearly $5000 more than the old wholly inadequate quarters of the library simply to keep it in condition that regular library work may be done in it. I may add, however, that such a building is worth much to a community simply as a work of art. It ought, however, to be clearly understood that extra provision is made for its care and maintenance on that score, as the city of Grand Rapids is doing and takes pride in doing.

Those in charge of a public library are caring for property that belongs to other people. It is essential that adequate records and accounts be kept of all money received and expended, so that an intelligent report of one's stewardship can be given at any time. But in book-keeping, as in all other things, eliminate every possible bit of red tape.

It seems to me that many libraries are woefully lacking in their methods of book-keeping—concealing rather than explaining what they did with the public money. Often the methods of book-keeping are beyond the control of the library

authorities, being prescribed by city ordinance. Instances are not unknown where the librarian must sign his name half a dozen times in the various steps connected with every purchase for the library. I should like, however, to see a great reform in this direction—clearness and the exclusion of red tape. I recall selling a book to a library, and the bill for $1.50 came back to me for receipt containing the names of eight different officials through whose hands it passed before payment could be made. Avoid such foolishness as you would the plague.

Good books, adapted to the needs of the particular community, are the life blood of the library, for the right use of them is the end and aim of the library. It is essential to have a constant supply of them—better, I believe, to add small lots frequently than a relatively large lot once a year. Accept all kinds of books as gifts with the clear understanding that you reserve the right to make such use of them as comports with the best interests of the library. Never, however, be deluded with the idea that cast-off books which are sent you at house cleaning time can put life into your library, any more than that the cast-off clothing that goes to a rummage sale would supply you with the clothes you would wish to wear at one of President Roosevelt's White House receptions. You can use these things, and you should, only have it generally understood that they will be used—on the shelves, for exchange, or for junk—as each item warrants. The person who gives something to a library in this way is generally more interested in it because of his gift, and it is that interest that we should ever keep in mind.

It is vastly more essential for the librarian of the small library to be a student, to know the books in the library, than it is for the librarian of the large library. In the large library to know the books in it is, indeed, impossible, and the librarian must depend on others; his time is largely absorbed, as Mr. Putnam once told me in his office in Washington, in pushing buttons—the details of administration.

Libraries with the proper librarian can do good work without a catalog. Some of the members of this association who are here present may recall the remark of Judge Pennypacker (now governor of Pennsylvania) in his address welcoming us to the Historical Society of Pennsylvania in 1897, to the effect that he then had 7500 volumes in his private library, and all

that his system of cataloging required when he wanted a book was simply that he should walk to the shelf on which it stood and get it. In short, he carried the contents and the location of the books in his head. He was the library's catalog.

Public libraries, however, cannot do this satisfactorily, not even small ones. Librarians resign, get married, or die, and then there is no catalog. The small library should have an accession book and an author card catalog. It can get along without the other desirable features, and, in large libraries, essentials of modern cataloging—shelf-lists, subject catalogs, etc., etc. The accession book is an account of stock. It is the one essential record of the history of every book, its cost, etc., in the library, and in case of the library's destruction by fire nothing can take its place in adjusting insurance. Libraries can and do get along without this record, but it seems to me that no public library can afford to be without it. Large libraries have the bibliographical tools to supply most of the information given in this book which the small library has not. Small libraries, as well as large, should avail themselves of the use of the cards supplied by the Library of Congress. By classifying the books on the shelves the small library has some of the essentials of a subject catalog.

A system of registration for those who draw books from the library and a regular method of charging the books drawn is essential, though in a small library these records can be made exceedingly simple. In a small town it is not necessary to have guarantors for the registered card holders. I still believe, in view of the methods used in the first library in which I worked, that for a very small library a ledger system of charging is the cheapest and simplest method. It is inexpensive, however, and soon becomes cumbersome to handle with the growth of the library. A simple card system of charging is the most satisfactory. Another essential in the administration of this department of the library is that every one be treated alike if fines are to be charged. Nothing arouses opposition to the library sooner than the feeling that favoritism is shown in dealing with the public. Have as few rules as possible, however. The golden rule is the shortest and best. Put the emphasis on what *can* be done rather than on what *can't*. The latter makes for a passive library, the former for an aggressive one. It is essential that the library be aggressive.

From the various essential records that are kept, interesting statistics can readily be gathered, and these serve a useful purpose in making intelligent reports and in keeping up interest in the library; for it is essential that the public, as well as the governing board, be kept adequately informed of all the library is doing. And even then you will be surprised to learn how much of ignorance there remains in spite of your best efforts. (I may remark in passing that I believe that our largest libraries ought to employ a press-agent, with his whole time devoted to keeping the public interested in the library.) Statistics should not be gathered for their own sake. They may easily cost more than they are worth. When rightly used, however, they enable the librarian to make comparisons, detect weak points in the work of the library, and so enable the intelligent application of a remedy. Used in this way statistics are essential in every library.

I leave for the conclusion of this paper the one essential that makes all things possible in a library—the one thing that the general public usually considers last—of least importance —the librarian.

Books alone are not a library, any more than a pile of stones is a cathedral. It requires knowledge, intelligence, and skill—trained men—to make something out of these raw materials; and it takes as many years of training to learn to administer the affairs of a library to the best advantage as it does to learn to erect a large successful building. Furthermore, a librarian must know as wide a range of subjects as the architect.

The foremost essential in the administration of a small library (and I mention it last by way of emphasis) is the right kind of a librarian—a librarian with training and experience. With such a librarian the proper spirit of freedom and of service will soon dominate the whole institution; the various personal problems of dealing with people successfully —with the board, with the staff, and with the public—will gradually adjust themselves to the satisfaction of all; the right books will be bought and guided intelligently and sympathetically into the hands of the people who really need them; every part of the work will be characterized by economy, accuracy, and efficiency—economy in the matter of binding, the purchase of

books and of supplies, the use of materials and in the methods of work; accuracy in all the details of cataloging and record; and efficiency in making the library a real vital force in every phase of the life of the community. Such a librarian will keep out fads and personal whims, will keep free from becoming a slave of routine, mechanical details, will interest and secure the coöperation of the public in ways that will make many things possible beyond the regular fixed income of the library. In short, such a librarian will furnish the steam, the motive power, that must be put into any institution to make it go, for institutions no more run themselves than do locomotives. Such a librarian with a strong personality makes the library stand for character and for the highest manhood and womanhood; and on these will be built the future glory and greatness of our nation and our race—free, manly men. Such service on the part of the librarians can not be measured in dollars and cents, and it never will be. We ought not to expect it. Nor is it likely that such a librarian will receive the reward of famous men, but rather that of "men of little showing," men whose "work continueth," through all time continueth, "greater than their knowing."

While all of us fall far short of this ideal, it is the ideal worth striving for, on the part of trustees worth seeking for; for such a librarian is the foremost essential, not only of the small library, but of every library.

FORM OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION FOR A SMALL TOWN MAKING A LIBRARY BEGINNING

This was read before the League of Library Commissions at the Narrangansett Pier meeting in 1906. The definite methods outlined make it excellent for inclusion here. Miss Tyler has in mind the small town with which the commission worker has to deal, and suggests making use of club libraries, traveling libraries, church libraries, and subscription libraries as well as town-supported libraries.

Alice Sarah Tyler, now director of the Western Reserve Library School, was for thirteen years secretary of the Iowa State Library Commission. She has been president of the League of Library Commissions, the Ohio Library Association, the Association of Amercan Library Schools, and the American Library Association.

The awakening of one or two individuals to the possibilities for good afforded by a public collection of books marks the beginning of the library movement in that town. These men or women may have formerly lived in a town having a flourishing library, and recalling the pleasure and benefit derived from it begin to wonder why such privileges may not be provided in the new home. Or some one who has grown up in the community hears of the work being done by the library in a neighboring town and asks why Pleasantown cannot do the same; or, as frequently happens, a woman's club has been organized in the town, a representative goes to the meeting of the State Federation, hears of the interest other club women have had in the founding of a local library, and, feeling the need of books for club study and knowing the dearth of good literature for her boys and girls who are growing up, joins with others in the effort to provide a collection of books for

general use. Whatever may be the cause of the interest which marks the beginning, the little seed has been sown and begins to grow.

In considering the topic assigned me, "What form of library organization is most desirable for the small town," it is, of course, necessary first of all to agree upon the meaning of the words "small town." In Iowa a community having a population of two thousand inhabitants or less is termed a town, and for *small* town I will assume that we agree upon interpreting it to mean a population of one thousand or less. With this group of people, having the ordinary advantages of school and church, what is the best method by which both young and old may be provided with the books that may inspire and cheer, inform and uplift both individual and community life? It does not seem necessary in this company to discuss the important function this library should fulfill in the life of the people; the mission of the book has been set forth so ably and so frequently in all library meetings that it would be indeed "carrying coals to Newcastle" to attempt it here. It is, however, well for us to remember that, while there is a surfeit of cheap literature that seems to have reached the smallest hamlets and villages, the need is as great as it ever was for the best books to be made accessible to those who do not yet know the "books of all time."

This group of people in the small town desiring to provide a public collection of books will probably follow the "line of least resistance" in making the beginning. Considering the prejudices, church affiliations, rivalries, etc., that exist in almost every town, what is likely to be the basis of the movement for a library? It will probably take one of the following forms:

1. Enlargement of the meager school library.
2. A church reading room.
3. Woman's club or town federation library.
4. Library association or subscription library.
5. Free public library, supported by taxation.
6. Travelling library center or station.

There may be and probably will be combinations of two or more of these into one plan, and if there is a state or county system of travelling libraries there would be, in any of the plans suggested, the probability of the use of the travelling libraries.

Considering the forms in the order mentioned: First, the enlargement of the meager school library—this has been occasionally resorted to because the few books serve as a nucleus, they in some instances having been found to be of little service in the schoolroom, while for the general public they might be of value. Poorly selected, ill adapted to the uses for which they were intended, with no one especially concerned as to their care and use, locked up and of no use to any one during the three months' vacation, they are indeed serving a good purpose if some of these dusty, neglected books in the school collections are made the nucleus of a public collection for the entire town. This, however, is rarely done.

The second plan—a church reading room—is one which is usually suggested by some enthusiastic pastor who is genuinely concerned regarding the young people of his church and town, and is generous enough to open a room in his church for this purpose. My observation has been that this is an unwise and undesirable method, as it is likely to be immediately combatted either secretly or openly by denominational opposition or jealousy on the part of other churches, and will not be likely to attract into the circle of its influence those who may not be identified with orthodox churches, or the unformed boys and young men who might be reluctant to use freely a library thus located.

The third—a movement on the part of a woman's club or a federation of all the clubs in the town to found a library—is a method that has been tried in several towns in our state. The organizations being already in existence, active and committed to altruistic and civic work, find in the public library a cause that appeals to its members strongly and to which they are willing to give enthusiastic labor. After close and sympathetic observation of this method of making a library beginning, I believe that it is not the best plan, because of the fact that it confines the movement to a limited group of workers. Sometimes, too, it encounters a spirit of jealousy and criticism on the part of those outside the club that is not conducive to the forwarding of a large public movement such as a library should be—to include all ranks and conditions, regardless of age, sex, or social standing.

The fourth plan—a library association or subscription library—is a popular method of making a beginning when properly

understood. The few who see the need of a library and plan to accomplish its organization, believing that it should be for *all* the people, call a meeting for the express purpose of discussing ways and means of providing a public library for the town. Notices of this meeting are sent to all churches, schools, clubs, lodges, etc., where people congregate, and are printed in the local newspaper so that all are given the opportunity of having a part in it. At this meeting, after addresses and discussion, it is voted that a library association shall be formed for establishing and maintaining a public library. Committees are appointed to recommend a basis of organization and on providing a book fund, and the movement takes form in a few weeks or months with a fund for the purchase of books and a specified annual membership fee which shall provide (probably very meagerly) for running expenses. With many variations, with discouragements and struggles, it is nevertheless an oft-tried and satisfactory method of making a beginning, the association affording an organization through which to work toward a tax-supported library.

But in each of the four plans mentioned by which a beginning may be made there is always and persistently and depressingly the question, "How are libraries begun in this manner to have sufficient funds even to barely exist, much more to grow?"

And this is the fundamental matter after all—money. Whence shall the funds come? The church plan, the club plan, the school plan, the association plan—all are dependent on the spasmodic and irregular support that results from the labors of a soliciting committee using persuasive arguments with business men and others. There are certain expenses that are absolutely essential—books first and most, a room for which, probably, rent must be paid (though some generous citizen may give the use of it), periodicals to be subscribed for, heat, light, table, chairs, etc., besides the most important feature of the whole scheme—the librarian.

Shall the use of the books be free? or, in this period of beginning, shall each person pay an annual fee or a rental for the use of the books? If an attempt is made to make the library absolutely free, on the basis of any one of the four plans suggested, there must be back of the movement a very active and probably much worried finance committee struggling

with entertainments, suppers, lecture courses, subscription lists, etc., to provide the "ways and means."

The fifth form of organization is the tax-supported free public library. Is it desirable that the small town shall in its beginning in library matters attempt at once to secure a municipal tax to found and maintain a free public library under the state law? There are those who believe this is the *only* way to make a beginning. I am confident that I voice the sentiment of commission workers when I say that we are all agreed that eventually, if not in the beginning, the free public library on a rate or tax-supported basis is our endeavor. The point whereon there may be a difference of opinion is whether the movement might first be started as an association and by means of this association public sentiment created which shall provide for the municipal support. There is no doubt but that the amount from the tax levy provided by law for the maintenance of the library in most states would be so small in a town of one thousand inhabitants or less, that it would be necessary for a movement to be inaugurated to provide a book fund by some other means—in other words, the plant must be installed, and this requires money. Afterward the running expenses may be met by the tax levy. It is certainly true that the life of a library is precarious and uncertain until an annual revenue is assured by a municipal tax, but it would seem to be simply a question of policy as to whether this shall be the *first* step or not. In studying this question at first hand it has been observed that the first impulse seems naturally to be to solicit subscriptions for a book fund, and this seems a necessity whether there is a maintenance tax or not. A library association standing back of this solicitation for a book fund and back of the entire movement seems very desirable and, though temporary, has usually proven to be successful.

Now, what, we may ask, is the relation of the state library commission to this community? What has it to do with this small town desiring to make a library beginning? First, its advisory relations with the community should be such that it will aid that town in avoiding the mistakes made elsewhere in the form of organization and in methods of work. Surely the observations and experience of commission workers, who are provided by the state, should be at the service of every

community in the state if desired. One of the points, however, that is always perplexing to the earnest commission worker is, how to help effectively. The cry of paternalism is not heard so much as formerly, but it is certainly a fine point as to how far the state shall go in aiding the local movement, and surely there must first be a desire on the part of the community.

But if it is the desire of but *one,* that is sufficient to bring the commission worker to the aid of that *one* in arousing interest. I would suggest that the effect of the commission worker's co-operation with the local movement is much greater if she comes on the invitation of the local leaders, and there is always a way to secure such an invitation. This puts the commission worker on a basis where she can serve much more effectively.

It may save the club and the library movement from much tribulation if we can tell them of the disaster that came to one town because of the zeal of the woman's club to have the honor of founding the library, or of another town where a certain secret organization aroused the opposition of all other societies in town by starting a library and collecting over one thousand volumes for public use, or of another town where a "generous citizen" gave a large sum for a new church building on condition that it should have a library room included for the use of the town (which the members of other churches in town seldom enter). On the other hand, they may be told of the enthusiastic organization of a library association, the raising of a book fund of $2000, and the favorable sentiment immediately created for a municipal tax which resulted in a free public library upon that basis within one year. Such information and the details gained from experience as to just how the work may best be accomplished constitute a part of the preliminary work the commission may do.

Second, to aid in the selection of books. Certainly this function of the library commission does not need to be emphasized here. The utter helplessness with which a new library board or book committee undertakes the task of providing books for the new library makes it absolutely imperative that selected lists should be available that can be placed in their hands. The "Suggestive list of books" published by the League of Library Commissions is especially suited for this sort of work, also

reliable lists of children's books, such as Miss Moore's "List of books for a children's library," published by the Iowa Library Commission; the Cleveland list, compiled by Misses Power and Prentice; Miss Hewins' "List of books for boys and girls," and others. The *A. L. A. Booklist* is also supplying this definite need of the small library for a reliable list of the best recent books, and this is furnished free (monthly) by most library commissions.

Third, to install a simple loan system and such other records as are absolutely essential to the orderly conduct of the library. This includes classification and shelf list, but not necessarily a card catalog.

Fourth, to provide the travelling library that shall augment the very meager collection of books belonging to the local collection.

This method of "state aid" is especially suited to the wants of the small town in making a beginning, but it also has the entire state for its field of activity, sending books to the remotest corners—the country neighborhood, the rural schools, the clubs, also loaning books on special subjects of study to the larger libraries. This fresh supply of books coming from this state center at intervals throughout the year may enable the local library to use some of the funds for a reading room as a feature of the work as well as the lending of books. In fact, I am inclined to say that if a suitable person is available for the position of librarian, the reading room can be made a more powerful influence for good in the small town than the lending of books for home reading. The absolute lack of provision for wholesome diversion and entertainment for young people in the small town, the inclination of the boys to loaf and lounge about the post-office, the railway station, the tobacco store, etc., because there is nowhere else to go; these conditions make it extremely important that a movement to establish a library in a small town should include the reading-room, where the open doors, bright lights, attractive periodicals and interesting books invite and attract those who would not otherwise come under the influence of the printed page.

But the problem of the reading-room in the small town is one of maintaining order without repelling, of cheer, welcome, helpfulness; so that the librarian's personal qualities are put to the test in such a position out of all proportion to the ap-

parent interests involved. Over and over again do we see unselfish, cultured, devoted women, fired with the altruistic spirit, giving themselves to such service "without money and without price," and so we have the volunteer librarian—without salary —as one of the most important factors in many of the small towns making a beginning, and but for whom probably there would be no beginning.

Certainly all the interests mentioned in the opening of this paper—the schools, the churches, the clubs—should be concerned in providing the public collection of books for the town, but these should rise above the particular organization or interest which chiefly concerns each. Obliterating all lines of separation they may unite in service for the public good, working unitedly either for the library association or the municipal library as the first step. Without the support of these interests the work would be well-nigh impossible.

THE WORK OF A MODERN PUBLIC LIBRARY

The purpose served by this article in *The Review of Reviews* is just the one to be served here—the presentation of the work of a typical large library to supplement that of the smaller ones already described. A sketch of the author, Henry L. Elmendorf, of the Buffalo Public Library, will be found in Volume 1.

The *Review of Reviews,* in asking for this outline of the organization and working of the Public Library of the city of Buffalo, as typical of the kind of work which, *mutatis mutandis,* is being done over and over again by cities and towns in this country, chose this library quite as much, probably, because of the size, situation, and character of the city as because of the specific work of the library.

Buffalo is a city of about four hundred thousand inhabitants, —large enough so that the working out of her library experiment has been on a liberal scale, and yet not so large but that it is thoroughly centralized. The city is located neither so far east that untried things were too deeply against established precedents, nor so far west that the tax burdens, made heavy by the demand for those material things that make city life tolerable, such as sewers and pavements and schoolhouses, forbid even a small increase. Buffalo's population is mixed, of every name and nation under heaven, so that her problems are as varied, though not as vast, as those confronting cities of larger growth.

The late founding of the library, as a public library, has perhaps been in its favor as a type. Sister cities, on all sides, had their public libraries years ago. Boston, Detroit, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago, and Milwaukee created their public libraries in the order named, and have been making their successes and their mistakes, one after another, ever since 1850.

The American Library Association was founded in 1876, and has met annually since, winnowing a body of library doc-

trine out of the experience of its members. Buffalo, not organizing her public library until 1897, would have been foolish, indeed, had she not taken advantage of this body of doctrine and gone to each of these libraries for something of suggestion, if not for imitation.

Buffalo was not, however, so dead in library matters as so late a public-library movement might seem to indicate. In 1837, one of the earliest of the Young Men's Association libraries was founded here. It was managed with great intelligence and business foresight, and by means of fortunate real-estate investments, and by becoming, still more fortunately, a pet hobby of rich men while living, and their favorite legatee when dying, it accumulated a very considerable property. To show its hold on the community, it would be interesting to tell the story of the time when a very desirable location, much wished for by the library, was likely to pass irrecoverably into private ownership. A popular subscription was opened, and more than one hundred thousand dollars was raised from more than five thousand subscribers.

Through various vicissitudes, one of which was the disastrous Hotel Richmond fire in 1887, the "Buffalo Library," as it came to be known in 1886, finally became possessed of its present centrally located property and fine building, and the great Iroquois Hotel, which it still owns. The beautiful building was its home; the rentals of the Iroquois Hotel were its sufficient income.

It seems a far cry from the Trinity Church tenements in New York City to the Buffalo Public Library, but without the one the other very probably, might not be in existence. The agitation concerning the Trinity tenements led to the passage, in 1896, of the act of the New York Legislature taxing, throughout the state, all property of learned, educational, and religious societies from which they received a revenue. This act at once curtailed the income of the Buffalo Library. It stood possessed of its valuable collection of 86,000 volumes, and its buildings and grounds valued at close to $1,000,000, and a total remaining income, from all sources, of not more than $5,600 for administration and for growth.

The situation was evidently quite impossible, and something had to be done. The Buffalo Library had been very public-spirited, the community was proud of the institution, and the

city came to the rescue in a way that, while it saved the situation, was, nevertheless, greatly to the city's profit.

After a short period of negotiation, enabling acts were obtained, and the whole of the library's property was turned over in trust to the city, under a contract that safeguarded all interests, on condition that the city maintain a free public library, giving it an annual income of not less than 3-100 of 1 per cent of the total assessed valuation of the city.

Thus from the travail of the "Buffalo Library," the Buffalo Public Library was born, in the year 1897, with a great library, a great building, an income of some $60,000 already in its possession, and the problem before it so to administer all these things as to influence most effectively and most wholesomely the life of the city. The history of the founding of the library is necessary to an understanding of the instant appreciation of the public library by the people of Buffalo.

The dominating idea of the library management throughout the seven years has been how to bring the books of the library most wisely, most easily, most attractively, into the hands of their owners, the citizens of Buffalo. This idea governed the rules by which those qualified to borrow books were determined, hence they were very liberal. Any grown person, and any child who was old enough to write his name, might have the cards which entitled him to draw books by simply identifying himself as a resident of Buffalo, with a stated home in the city. Even this registration, as it is called, is irksome to the unthinking, but, of course, it is quite impossible to allow public property to be carried away by persons whom it is not easily possible to trace. No such thing as a guarantee, or identification by a property-owner is required, but simply satisfactory evidence of the person's real name and residence.

At the end of four months from the opening, there were more than 32,000 registered borrowers. The old library had at no time more than about 1,500 members. The increase is strong testimony of how effective a barrier even a small fee is to multitudes of would-be readers. The registered borrowers now number 56,500, besides 30,000 children, whose attendance at the public schools is made to serve as sufficient identification.

The next thing to be considered was how freely the people could wisely and safely be permitted to handle the stock of books in making their choice to take home. The precedents in

public libraries the country over were by no means uniform,—*e.g.,* Boston closed its circulating books and required that they be asked for by list at a desk, and threw its beautiful reference library open; Cleveland opened its entire circulating shelves and restricted its reference shelves; Philadelphia threw all shelves open, and Chicago closed every shelf.

The policy of an institution, like the conduct of an individual, is usually a resultant of the clash between ideals and fixed conditions, and the policy in this case was so determined.

The Buffalo Public Library was born with a large collection of books and a building; these were its fixed conditions. These books had been gathered during a period of sixty years. Some of them were too valueless, by reason of age and consequent lack of interest, to be put in the way of unskilled readers; and, on the other hand, some of them were of value to the few, the students merely, and of so great value that it would be the height of extravagance to allow them to be worn out by the aimless handling of the many, to whom they are without interest. The building was arranged to store the books in what is called a "stack,"—that is, in this case at least, a long, rather narrow room, with two stories of bookcases throughout, separated by aisles less than three feet wide, the whole rather poorly lighted. It was evidently quite impossible to admit people in any numbers into such a room and expect them to find what they wished and keep even reasonably out of one another's way. It seemed a foregone conclusion that the public could not have free access to the mass of the books, and a compromise was in order.

An Open-shelf Department

In the course of some alterations in the building, to make it more fit to accommodate large numbers of people, by the removal of partitions and the cutting of new openings, an attractive, well-lighted, easily accessible room, 75 by 38 feet in dimensions, was provided. This room was shelved with oak bookcases seven shelves high, around the walls only, leaving the center of the room free for tables and hospitable chairs. Shelving was thus at hand where about eight thousand books could be comfortably displayed to a large number of people. Upon these shelves was placed a selected library representing

all classes of literature, with the exception of books for reference only, not omitting a generous supply of the best novels.

The plan was to throw open the best popular books of every description,—not books for scholarly research, or even for careful study, but the best of everything to attract and interest that large class called "general readers." Beside the permanent collection, a section is reserved in this room where new books are shelved for three months after they are added to the library. Every one is welcome to this room to read and to examine the books as he will, and such as have library cards may borrow the books in the usual way. These books serve best those who come to the library not knowing precisely what they want, but needing to be reminded of something that they have long desired to see but have momentarily forgotten, or to be pleased with something that attracts them by its appearance. Those who prefer to ask directly for what they want can be best served in the outer room, where assistants hand them books over the counter from the stack. The books in the open shelves, except the comparatively small number of new books, are all duplicated in the stack, and do not interfere with presenting lists in the time-honored way.

The purpose of the open shelves is to recommend the best books by placing each book where it can recommend itself by being seen and handled. Large numbers of duplicates are provided, so that favorites may always be represented on the shelves. Twenty thousand volumes are necessary to keep the eight thousand places on the shelves reasonably well filled. The list is constantly revised, and no book that proves unattractive is allowed to cumber the shelves, but is retired to the stack, to give place to something more desirable. No book is shelved here that has not something attractive in itself, which will make the book more likely to be read because it can be seen and examined.

Attracting Readers to the Best Books

Experience shows that no book which is well made,—that is, well printed and bound, and has a real, vital, message for mankind,—fails to find appreciation. Many of the best and greatest books are borrowed from the open shelves four or five times as often, during the year, as copies of the same

book are lent from the stack. To show that the collection is really liked, it is only necessary to say that during 1903, these 20,000 volumes gave a circulation of 245,000—that is, each book of the entire number was taken home and, presumably, read twelve times during the year. This is, of course, an average; some did not go twelve times, but others went oftener. The ordinary library methods are used to attract attention to the books, such as special lists and special displays of books on current topics of interest, critical notices posted near the new books, book-posters, and bulletin displays.

The open-shelf collection,—a library for the general reader, carefully selected, tested by experience, and constantly revised, —cannot, and does not, strive to keep pace with the skilled novel-reader. It does attempt to put most of the old, great books, the authorities on special subjects, the pleasant, lovable authors, and the best new books, be they delightful, useful, or instructive, before its readers, and the steady and, in many cases, growing use of these books is a constant source of encouragement and delight.

The question is always asked, and may as well be answered, "Do you not lose books under this system?" We certainly do, but very few,—less than 1 to 5,000 of circulation. The board of directors and library authorities have long ago lost the fetish idea in regard to books. This collection represents current books, easily replaceable and worth just the money it will cost to replace them. The money loss is many times made up by the saving in attendants' salaries, as it costs about one-third as much to circulate books in this way as under the old system. Neither the loss nor the saving is to be taken into account as compared with the pleasure and profit of the many who enjoy these privileges, and who, collectively, pay the pittance of loss.

The open-shelf department may be considered the most distinctive feature of the library's work, so much so that among librarians it is often referred to as the "Buffalo plan."

Free Use of Reference Books and Periodicals

The reference department adjoins the open-shelf room. Here the ordinary encyclopædias, dictionaries, atlases, gazetteers, and the like are convenient to the visitor's hands, and skilled attendants are ready to place the entire resources of the library, from all departments, at the inquirer's service. Many books

are bought with reference to the wants of the manufacturing interests of the city. These are occasionally used, and their information is very valuable at times, though not so often as might be expected by students in other lines. In mechanical engineering and manufacturing processes, practice is far in advance of the record of it. The most practical men, the men that bring things to pass, seldom either write or lecture, and books in these lines are often out of date before they are off the press. The consultation of formulas and tables, however, often saves the mechanic and the manufacturer much time.

It is by students of literature, by high-school pupils, and by members of literary clubs and societies that the room is most used.

The idea of accessibility, which pervades the library, is carried out in the periodical room by placing three hundred of the most popular current weekly and monthly magazines in an open rack, or case, in the center of the room. These are arranged alphabetically by titles, that they may be easily found, and are free to all, for use in the room, without receipt or record of any kind.

The same freedom prevails in the newspaper room, where the local dailies and weeklies and representative papers of other cities are placed on wall racks or reading tables, and invite the reader to their use without inquiry or formal receipt.

The children's department is administered on the same lines as the open-shelf room. The children have their own reference- and reading-room, and their library is a selection of the best children's books on open shelves. They have their picture bulletins, their special book lists, and special collections of books on topics in connection with their school studies and their Saturday-morning story hour. The children's work needs for its description an article by itself, although it differs little from that of other modern public libraries, save possibly in the size of its rooms and the volume of its circulation.

Branch Libraries

In order to reach people who live too far off to come to the main building, the library has nine delivery stations and three branch libraries. At the stations, a daily delivery is made of books asked for by written lists. These stations are usually located in drug stores or news-stands, the proprietors being

responsible merely for receiving the requests and delivering the books.

Each of the three branches is a small library in itself, and has from two thousand to three thousand books. Each branch is in communication with the main library by telephone, and has a daily delivery of books from the central building to supply such calls as cannot be filled from the branch collection. The open-shelf system applies to all. The branch work has an effectiveness similar to that of the well-managed library in a small town. The librarian is thorougly acquainted with his small collection of books, and knows individually the readers who frequent the library, and their needs and wishes have the personal attention which they deserve.

Public-School Libraries

The chief function of the public library is the education of good citizens, and its greatest opportunity is with young people. While the library affords information and recreation for those of mature years, it can help to form the characters of the children. Realizing this, it was thought all important to take advantage of the gathering of sixty thousand of the young citizens some two hundred days in the year, at an expense fifteen times greater than the cost of the public library, for the express purpose of suggesting to them the various ways by which they may develop into happy, wise, and useful citizens. Nowhere else does the city gather her citizens in any such numbers or so accessibly. If there is a means by which the two institutions, the school and the library, which are supported by the city for one and the same purpose, can unite their endeavors, the one strengthening, deepening, and enlarging the work of the other, is it not manifestly a culpable waste of both appropriations if they do not join forces?

When the library was made free every public school had something of a school library, bought with the State and city appropriations for the purpose, supplemented in many schools by gifts, the proceeds of entertainments, etc. Some of these libraries were good, but all of them were inadequate, and all of them failed in the vital matter that their use brought no association with the public library. They were school property, and there was no suggestion in them that when school-days were over there were in the public library more and better

books, always free to them as one of their rights and privileges as children and citizens of Buffalo.

The school authorities of the city and the board of directors of the library have been equally alive to the value of the coöperation, have authorized each step, accepting and encouraging with good will and intelligence every advance in the system.

After careful consideration, the following plan was submitted to principals and teachers: the schools were to turn over to the public library all their miscellaneous books, retaining only purely reference books. These miscellaneous books were to be sorted, the poor ones withdrawn and the good ones, supplemented by others from the public library, were to be returned in the form of a library for each class-room, about equal in number of volumes to the number of pupils. Twenty-four school principals made application to have the libraries in their schools, and ten schools were chosen for the experiment. In making the selection, the distance of the school from the library, the character of the district in which it was located, and the possession, by both principal and teachers, of such an intelligent sympathy with the idea as would give the experiment a fair test, were all taken into consideration.

The books turned over to the library showed a plain need that selection and purchase should be in the hands of a single-headed institution like the public library, which could be held responsible, rather than a composite body of principals and teachers. Only about 20 per cent. of the books in the old school libraries were thought fit to return, and the public library added, from its own resources, more than five thousand volumes to begin the experiment. The selection was made with the greatest care, each book being thoroughly examined, and most of them critically read. Each school and each class was studied, with the aid of the teacher, before intelligent assignment of the books could be secured, and even then many errors mere made, some of which experience and observation have helped to correct.

The very simplest method of charging was devised, to be kept by the teacher. Each teacher was allowed to make her own rules for using the books. They might be used in the school-room, for reading to the children, drawn for home use, or in any way thought best, the only restriction being that they must never be used as rewards or punishments.

Library assistants visit each school twice each month,—once

to take necessary statistics from the records, and once in a friendly way to talk with the teachers, to find whether the books are suitable, to take account of any special wants, and to aid the work in every possible way. Reasonable care of the books is required, but only such as is given to other school property, and in case of loss or damage there is no money liability for the teacher. The libraries are changed once during the school year by shifting from room to room or from school to school.

Schools have been added to the ten with which the start was made, until now thirty-nine schools, with six hundred and ninety-three class-room libraries, are included in the system. The school department began in very modest,—in fact, very cramped,—quarters in one of the library workrooms. The work grew so that it demanded more room, and the department now occupies five of the most desirable rooms in the library. The pleasantest of all is a teachers' headquarters, where a sample of every school library book is kept, and where pictures are displayed. School reference books are here for inspection, and a small pedagogical library. Teachers can freely use this room for their committee meetings or in any way to help their work and make them at home in the library.

The difficult but natural and practical question is, "What is the result of all this?" The statistics of use of the books is the most tangible record. The first year, with ten schools, showed a home circulation of 27,469, with 6,400 volumes in use. In 1903, with 39 schools and 30,600 volumes, the home circulation was 309,874. These figures speak for themselves, and it should be remembered that the books are not an ordinary general collection of children's books, but have been selected with great care, so that the circulation might justly be called "approved."

The success of the libraries is not uniform, but varies with the ability of the teacher to make use of the facilities offered. The library's idea is to furnish the teachers means, or at least an aid, to develop each individual child along the line of that child's strongest inclination and greatest ability.

Traveling Libraries for Firemen and Others

The stations of the city fire department are supplied with small libraries on the traveling-library plan,—that is, a case

with from twenty-five to fifty books is sent to each fire-house, and is changed about six times a year. The work of the firemen involves so much enforced leisure, while they are waiting and must be ready for a call, that it gives them ample opportunity to read. These libraries are greatly enjoyed and highly appreciated. One fireman exclaimed, "Before the library came, I did not know there were such books in the world." Naturally books "where they do something" are chosen, and several chiefs have reported that numbers of their men read every book in the collection.

Besides the firemen, many others draw books on the traveling-library plan, and one hundred and eight collections were issued last year to literary clubs, teachers in private schools, five Sunday-schools, twelve charitable institutions, homes, etc. The spirit and practice of the library is to seek and to accept every opportunity to get the books into the hands of the people, and thus allow the books to serve most completely the purpose for which the institution stands.

Spirit of the Library Administration

Not a prohibitory sign defaces the library rooms, and while there are many placards giving information and directions, it has never been found necessary to display a single "Thou shalt not."

The present annual income of the library, from all sources, is about $85,000, and its annual circulation of books for home use 1,085,000 volumes.

The measure of success which the library has had is largely due to the wise and cordial support of the board of directors. Its policy from the start has been to impose responsibility for initial action and all executive work upon the librarian, and to require results. The librarian, to a certain extent, takes the same course with his heads of departments, so that the library has the cordial interest and endeavor of the personnel of the staff. The board meets once a month, with its treasurer and librarian, carefully examines the work of the month past, patiently listens to the plans for future work, and discusses and approves or not, as is thought most wise. The directors visit the library between meetings, and are the intelligent advisers and trusted friends of the librarian.

LIBRARY LEGISLATION

History reports some futile attempts to force libraries by law upon peoples who have never felt the need for them, but in the progress of library organization in America, legislation has usually come as a means of making secure and effective the work of institutions already functioning, in process of organization, or for which there was an expressed need. The laws recently enacted for the organization of county libraries are taken up in a separate section on that subject.

STATE LEGISLATION IN THE MATTER OF LIBRARIES

This is the first survey made of the progress of legislation for American libraries, beginnng with the school-district libraries, and continuing with the public library statutes in the various states.

A sketch of William Frederick Poole, who wrote this article, will be found in Volume 3.

For the past forty years, crude and ill-digested schemes of legislation on the subject of libraries have existed in most of the Northern states. Millions of dollars have been expended in purchasing district-school libraries which cannot be found, and which form no part of the library statistics of the country. Perhaps the greatest impediment to the general adoption of the modern public library system is the improvidence and wastefulness which have everywhere attended these schemes.

District-school libraries were first established by law in the state of New York, in 1835. In 1838, the General Assembly passed an act appropriating $55,000 annually for supplying books to these libraries, and requiring towns to raise an equal sum by taxation for this purpose. The motive which prompted this legislation was praiseworthy, but the methods adopted were ruinous.

Massachusetts, under the lead of Horace Mann, adopted a similar statute in 1837; Connecticut followed in 1839; Rhode Island and Iowa in 1840; Indiana in 1841; Maine in 1844; Ohio in 1847; Wisconsin in 1848; Missouri in 1853; California and Oregon in 1854; Illinois in 1855; Pennsylvania in 1864; Kansas and Virginia in 1870; New Jersey in 1871; Kentucky and Minnesota in 1873; and Colorado in 1876. In states which have adopted the scheme within the past twenty years, fortunately very little money has been spent, and in several states none. Massachusetts repealed her statute for sustaining district libraries in 1850. The concurrent testimony from all these

states is, that the scheme has been a failure. The books rapidly disappeared, for they had no proper care, and the public soon lost their interest in the collections.

No state has carried out the district scheme so persistently and extravagantly as New York, and, as a result, New York to-day has on her statute-book no law authorizing taxation for the support of public libraries. The enterprise and intelligence, however, of a few of her inland cities are in advance of the legislation of the state, for they have free municipal libraries supported indirectly by local taxation. A few extracts from the official reports of the State Superintendent of Schools will show the practical results of the district-library system in New York state. The superintendent for 1861, in his annual report, says: "Concurrent testimony from nearly every quarter of the state represents the libraries in the rural districts as almost totally unused, and rapidly deteriorating in value. The whole number of volumes reported during the past year is 1,286,536 which is 317,674 less than was reported in 1853; although $55,000 has been appropriated each year since that date for library purposes." The superintendent for 1862 reports, that "in the last five years $139,798 have been expended in the rural districts for library purposes, while the number of volumes reported has diminished in the same period from 1,288,070 to 1,206,075 —a loss of 81,995 volumes as a return for the expenditure named." He speaks of the rural libraries as "a motley collection of books ranging in character from Headley's 'Sacred Mountains' to the 'Pirate's Own Book,' scattered among the families of the districts, constituting a part of the family library, serving as toys for children, crowded into cupboards, thrown into cellars, or stowed away in lofts." In cities and larger villages, the books were better cared for; but the funds appropriated for books were generally applied to other purposes. It might be supposed that a scheme which produced such results would be short-lived; but it has not been. The superintendent for 1875 says: "The district-library system has not worked well in this state, and has utterly failed to accomplish what was expected of it. The libraries have fallen into disuse, and in a large majority of districts have become practically valueless." "The total amount of appropriation since 1838 is $2,035,100. I doubt whether more than

one-half of the state appropriation has for many years been used for library purposes."

The legislation for school libraries in several of the Western states has been spasmodic, raising and expending large sums of money for a short period, and then suspending all support for a term of years. Ohio in 1853 laid a tax of one-tenth of a mill on the dollar upon all the taxable property of the state for furnishing libraries to all its common schools. In three years, 332,579 volumes were placed in school libraries. A suspicion arose that there was a large steal in the contracts for supplying these libraries. The tax was then suspended for two years, and at the end of that period the number of volumes reported had fallen off more than 100,000. In 1860, the tax levy was restored. In 1865, the number of volumes reported was only 350,000. In 1868 the State Superintendent says: "The books are scattered or lost in large numbers. Township school officers are puzzled to know what to do with the few books remaining, and are calling for the privilege of selling them at public auction, or to be otherwise relieved of their care." In 1869, only 258,371 volumes were reported; and since that year no statistics of these libraries have been published.

In Indiana, the district system has passed through a similar experience. In 1853, a general tax levy was laid, which in three years raised $266,597, and purchased 226,213 volumes. In 1861, the number of volumes had increased to 315,209 volumes; but in 1874 the number had decreased to 253,545 volumes, of which only 85,366 had been taken out during the year. The Public Library of Indianapolis, with 14,560 volumes, circulated the same year 101,281 volumes.

The report of the United States Bureau of Education of 1876, from which these statistics are drawn, gives some detailed reports from the county superintendents of Indiana for 1874, which illustrate the practical operation of the district-library scheme, from which I make a few selections:

Bartholomew Co.—Number of volumes, 2572; number taken out, 395. Many of the books have been lost; the remainder are in bad condition, and but little read. The expense overruns the benefits derived.

Carroll Co.—Number of volumes, 3428; taken out, 428. Our libraries are in poor condition; many of the books are stale, and the people take but little interest in them.

Decatur Co.—Number of volumes, 3637; taken out, 528. The books are but little read, and are slowly but surely becoming scattered and lost.

DeKalb Co.—Number of volumes, 2573; taken out, 50.

Fountain Co.—Number of volumes, 2748; taken out, 546. Our township libraries are a general failure. More than half the books have been carried away and lost. Those that remain are practically of no value.

Time will not permit me to trace the operation of the district-library scheme in other states. This examination would show results similar to those already given. In some localities the libraries, though small and badly selected, have been cared for and have benefited, at least, the families which have had them in charge. They have doubtless, in isolated instances, helped individuals to form habits for reading, and to inspire a taste for better books. The scheme, however, as a measure of public policy, has been a failure; for the good it has accomplished bears no reasonable proportion to its cost. It stands also in the way of the general adoption of the more recent and successful method of maintaining public libraries.

The modern public-library system which has gone into practical operation, both in this country and in England, within the last twenty-five years, avoids the practical mistakes on which district libraries have made shipwreck. It asks for no appropriation from the state for its support, and hence requires no state supervision. Those communities only which have the population, wealth, and disposition to support a public library can have one. It is a local institution, and the only function of state legislation in the matter is, giving these communities the right to levy a local tax for the support of the library, and affording it the same protection which is given to other municipal institutions. A library adapted for public use is something more than a collection of books. It is a collection of books selected with intelligence, catalogued and arranged in an orderly manner, protected by judicious rules, and under wise and efficient management. The district libraries have failed from the want of such supervision. No city or town, which has intelligence enough to vote to tax itself for a public library, will lack the persons of sufficient education and culture to manage it, when so much printed information on the subject is now available. Every taxpayer also constitutes himself a committee

of advice and visitation; and if abuses exist, they are likely to be speedily remedied.

Twelve states of our Union have enacted laws for the maintenance of public libraries, and most of these states have changed their laws from time to time by removing restrictions on the amount of taxation, and giving the people greater freedom in making appropriations for this purpose. Massachusetts, for instance, in 1851 authorized a town or city to raise a sum not exceeding one dollar for each ratable poll for the first year, and twenty-five cents yearly thereafter. In 1859 a larger tax was permitted, and in 1866 a city or town was authorized to raise any sum it deemed necessary for the establishment and support of a public library.

The present condition of legislature on the subject of public libraries in the several states, is exceedingly varied—some statutes being very brief and others extended; some placing the libraries under the control of an independent board of directors, and others under the local boards of education, and others still making no provision on the subject. Our secretary, in proposing that I prepare a paper on this subject, suggested that I draft the form of a statute, which, after consideration and revision by the conference, might be recommended for general adoption by states which have no legislation in the matter of public libraries. After some reflection on this point, it has seemed to me a more judicious plan for the conference not to commit itself to any specific form of legislation at this time, and thus divide our forces on methods; but to recommend, and so far as the individual members can do, to promote, the establishment of public libraries in all parts of the country where they do not exist. This can be done through the medium of the public prints, by setting forth their advantages, explaining their practical operations, imparting information, and answering objections. When public attention is awakened, and the need of such institutions are felt, legislation on the subject will naturally follow, which, though simple and perhaps crude, may go as far as public opinion in the state will at first sanction. The precise form of legislation, provided it gives a community the right to tax itself sufficiently to establish and maintain a library, is not a matter of much importance at the outset. The main object is to commence; and if there be an enlightened public opinion sustaining the library, any minor

imperfection of legislation will correct itself or will be harmless. Without such a public opinion behind it, the best form of legislation will not save it. It has seemed to me, therefore, that I can best accomplish the object I have in view in this paper by briefly sketching the form in which legislation in this country on the subject of public libraries has manifested itself, and noticing some of the merits and defects of this legislation.

New Hampshire, as early as 1849, passed a statute allowing towns to raise by taxation such sum for the support of a public library as the voters might determine. Maine and Connecticut adopted and still maintain the limit of taxation of one dollar on each ratable poll for the first year, and of twenty-five cents for each subsequent year. This rate is too meagre to support a healthy library. Each of these states is wealthier than New Hampshire, and yet both combined have fewer libraries, and raise only about half as much money for their support. Vermont began in 1865 with the New Hampshire law, but fell back in 1867 to that of Maine and Connecticut; and hence its libraries are few and feeble. Massachusetts commenced, as we have seen, with the same plan of limited taxation, from which it advanced to the adoption of the New Hampshire law. It has now one hundred and twenty-seven public libraries, containing more than a million volumes. In none of the New England states is there any legislation regulating the manner in which public libraries shall be managed. These details are determined by the votes or ordinances of the several towns and cities.

The statute of Texas, enacted in 1871, is a model of conciseness, and, supported by public opinion, is sufficient. In a form slightly amended and condensed, it reads as follows: "Any incorporated city may establish a free public library, and may make such regulations and grant such part of its revenues for the management and increase thereof as the municipal government of the city may determine." In Wisconsin, legislation began in 1868, by permitting towns to raise by taxation yearly $150 for the purchase of books; and in 1872, cities and towns were authorized to raise a tax of one mill on the dollar for the support of public libraries. Subscription and social libraries, many of them under the intelligent management of ladies' associations, are maintained in nearly all the principal towns of

the northwestern states; and these often develop into free public libraries. Iowa also grants a mill tax.

In Ohio and Indiana, public libraries are under control of the local boards of education; and few of these institutions have been so successful as the public libraries of Cincinnati and Indianapolis. In Ohio, the immediate care of the libraries is committed to a board of seven managers appointed by the board of education chiefly from citizens at large. These managers have only the power of a committee. They may recommend measures and nominate officers; but they can make no appointments and vote no money. In cities of the first and second class, a tax of one-tenth of a mill is annually levied for the purchase of books. The expense of buildings, salaries, and incidental charges is defrayed from the general educational fund. In 1875, a law was passed permitting any city or incorporated village to establish a public library, and to expend upon it any amount which the municipal authorities may determine.

The legislation of Indiana is very simple and concise, being all embraced in a single paragraph of an act passed in March, 1871, concerning the election and duties of a board of school commissioners. One of the duties of the commissioners is as follows: "To levy a tax each year of not exceeding one-fifth of one mill on each dollar of taxable property, . . . for the support of free libraries, . . . and to disburse any and all revenue raised by such tax levy in the purchase of books for, and in the fitting up of suitable rooms for, such libraries, and for salaries to librarians; also to make and enforce such regulations as they may deem necessary, . . . and to prescribe penalties for the violation of such regulations." Here is ample authority for the establishment and administration of a public library.

The objection to the system of Ohio and Indiana is, that boards of education and school commissioners are not selected and appointed with reference to their qualifications for managing public libraries, and practically they give very little attention to the subject. Hence they are required to act in matters upon which they have little or no knowledge. They must rely on the judgment of managers or committees having special supervision of the libraries, or act on impulse or prejudice. The persons who have the supervision and knowledge, ought

also to have the power of making appointments, fixing salaries, and disbursing the funds of the library.

The library statute of Illinois, being one of the most recent, is the most extended and perhaps the most carefully considered instance of legislation on his subject. It creates an independent board of nine directors, nominated by the Mayor, and approved by the city council, to hold office for three years. Not more than one director can be a member of the city council. This board has the exclusive control of the library, making all the appointments, fixing salaries, disbursing all its funds, and with power to construct or lease library buildings. Towns and villages may levy a tax for libraries not to exceed two mills on the dollar; cities of less than 100,000 inhabitants, one mill; and cities of over 100,000 inhabitants, one-fifth of a mill. This tax would give the Chicago Public Library about $60,000 a year. The only point in which any other department of the city government comes in to effect these provisions, is in the fact that the city council may, at the time of making the annual city appropriations as the basis of taxation, appropriate a less amount than that named in the statute as a miximum. The council may appropriate one-half the sum named, or may kill the library by making no appropriation at all. Here, in another form, the same danger arises that was mentioned in connection with the statutes of Ohio and Indiana. City councilmen are not appointed to administer public libraries; and, perhaps, with the multiplicity of their other duties, know less about libraries than if they were not councilmen. An amendment depriving the city council of the right to limit the appropriation, would remove this danger; but would it be good policy to recommend such an amendment? City councils fix the appropriations for schools and every other class of municipal expenditures. Panics and financial disturbances, such as now exist, necessarily compel cities to curtail expenses. Might not a popular prejudice arise against libraries if they were the only department whose expenditures the municipal government could not control? This question, I am told, was carefully considered when the Illinois statute was drafted, and it was decided to give city councils this power, relying upon an enlightened public opinion to sustain the libraries, in case they should temporarily suffer from this cause. I am not prepared to say that this view of the matter is not the correct one. The resources of the public libraries of

Illinois have been curtailed by the appropriations of city councils during the late business and financial disturbance; but they have not suffered more than the public schools, the streets, the charities, and other objects of municipal expenditure. Public appreciation of these institutions, based on the work they are doing, is, after all, the only sure guaranty that they will be liberally supported, enlarged, and cherished.

LEGISLATION FOR PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Further investigation into the history of library legislation, by Henry Augustus Homes is presented in this paper, written two years after Mr. Poole's article appeared.

Mr. Homes discusses in more detail the libraries which preceded the public or town library, and notes the first granting of certain library rights and privileges.

Mr. Homes was born in 1812 in Boston. He attended Amherst College and both Andover and Yale Theological schools. He spent a year in Paris studying Oriental languages, and from 1838 until 1851 was in Constantinople and the east as a missionary where he took particular interest in the work of translation. He then served for three years in the United States Diplomatic Service at Constantinople before returning to this country. From 1862 to his death in 1887 he was state librarian of New York, having entered the library as assistant in 1854, and shown exceptional fitness for the work.

In the preparation of the present paper on State Legislation for Public Libraries, I have been following in the path previously traced by our colleague, Mr. Poole, in his paper two years since on the same subject. It was his discussion which suggested to me to make still further researches in the same fields. I do not intend to repeat any of the statements made by him in that paper; and if my figures in any particulars differ from those given by him, it will be because I include the territories as well as the states, and also because that in the two years since his article was written, the legislation of the states has advanced and improved.

Without discussing questions of library government and administration, my aim is to note historically certain steps of progress antecedent to the introduction of the town library

system, till we reach the present condition of legislation regarding these libraries.

Previous to the legislation for free public libraries was that for library associations. The early library associations were known by the names of proprietary, social, subscription, and even of *public* libraries. At least sixteen of the states, California, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia and Wisconsin, have a statute for the incorporation of such association under a general law. We, in every case, even when not mentioned, include the territories with the states in the enumeration.

In one other way the representatives of the people have shown a disposition to encourage the formation of these associations, by exempting their libraries and buildings from taxation. This exemption is authorized in at least twenty-three of the States and territories: Alabama, Arizona, California, Colorado, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Virginia, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, Wyoming. In the revised statutes of the following states and territories, no legislation regarding libraries was found, except for the *State* Library, Columbia, Dakota, Delaware, Kentucky, Louisiana, Missouri, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oregon, South Carolina. A further expression has been given to the high estimate put upon the value of knowledge to be derived from books, by enaction of law, in at least nine states, by which private libraries up to a certain amount are exempted either from taxation or attachment: Alabama, Columbia, Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, Massachusetts, New York, West Virginia, Wisconsin.

But in no way has the popular estimate of the value of libraries been shown more persistently and extensively than in the establishment of the school-district library system, under the operation of state school laws. In this measure, from the year (1835) in which New York introduced it, at least twenty-one states have entered: California, Colorado, Connecticut, Iowa, Indiana, Illinois, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, New Jersey, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Virginia, Wisconsin. We will not repeat here the summary of facts regarding

the system so clearly given by Mr. Poole in his paper just referred to. From year to year in the states which have expended the most money to make school libraries a success, the laws have been amended and modified in later times, in the hope of creating a tolerable substitute for the public town library. The Indiana and Wisconsin systems, carried out under school boards of education, are examples of these changes; and perhaps Pennsylvania should also have been classed with those states having a town libraries' law. Yet in reference to them all, the superintendents of education in those states pronounce these libraries failures. Michigan finally adopted a thorough town libraries' law in 1877. In 1859 her superintendent of education reasoned strongly in stating the advantages of the district system over the town system. And yet in 1876 one-third of the counties in the state made no appropriation for either the district or the town system, and the bulk of all that was appropriated for libraries was made by three out of the entire seventy-six counties in the state. The superintendent of education of 1877 observes: "The public library has almost ceased to exist as a part of the public school system of the state." In the state of New York, testimony from the county school commissioners is frequently of this nature: "The library money is almost invariably applied . . . to the payment of teachers' wages. In four-fifths of the districts, not one in ten of the inhabitants can tell where the library can be found, or how many volumes it contains, and probably in ninety-nine cases out of every hundred the libraries are of no practical use whatever."* The present superintendent of education remarks:† "I am satisfied that the day of usefulness of district libraries is past;" and he recommends a system of town libraries in their stead, and the gathering the books of the district libraries into them.

If the school-district library has resulted in disappointing the expectations with which it was established, the reasons for the failure are very apparent, now that we have obtained a better system. All of the reasons suggested have had a share of influence. But the reason of all was that the amount of money and the number of books annually obtainable for any one district were too few and small to admit of an interest in

* New York Educational Report, 1874. p. 240.
† New York Educational Report, 1875. p. 27.

the library, or to secure proper care of the books, either for circulation or preservation. The sum disposable, from both the state and the town, would not be more, ordinarily, than from eight to ten dollars a year. The school-district was too small a unit for the object. And these funds, either with or against the authority of law, were constantly diverted to other purposes, as for the wages of the teachers. The books selected, at their best, were not selected as much for adult minds as for young minds. The abundance and the cheapness of excellent monthlies for old and young, and of other cheap literature, have served to diminish the interest in these small libraries. Notwithstanding the failure of the district library, the expenditure of money has not been useless. Along with the direct and positive advantages which have accompanied them during all the years of their existence, we are indebted to them for the preparation of the public mind to welcome the town library. They have occasioned the need and the utility of books and good reading for the whole community to be appreciated, and the public town library to be regarded with hope and strong conviction as one of our best resources for the future.

The school-district library is acknowledged to have been the transition-link between the subscription library and the town library. I think that the law of New York, of 1835, creating them, has more of historical significance than is usually ascribed to it. It is, I believe, the first known law of a state allowing the people to tax themselves to maintain genuine public libraries. The law did not establish libraries for schools, but for the people, in districts of the size of a school-district. The first recommendation of this law proceeded from a man whose name has since obtained the widest national repute by his eminent public services, but who, in 1836 and for three years thereafter, was secretary of state and superintendent of education—a son of New Hampshire, the late John A. Dix. In his report of that year, he says: "If the inhabitants of school-districts were authorized to lay a tax upon their property for the purpose of purchasing libraries for the use of the districts, such a power might, with proper restrictions, become a most efficient instrument in diffusing useful knowledge and in elevating the intellectual character of the people. . . The power of the inhabitants to lay taxes is restricted to specific objects,

and a legislative act would be necessary to enlarge it. . . It would be proper to limit the amount to be raised annually. . . As its imposition would be voluntary, it would be made only where its tendency would be to produce salutary effects."

Secretary Dix, in 1836 (this law proposed by him having been enacted in 1835), in his report on the object of the law, says: "The object . . . was not so much for the benefit of children attending school, as for those who have completed their common school education. Its main design was to throw into school-districts, and place within the reach of all their inhabitants, a collection of good works on subjects calculated to enlarge their understandings and store their minds with useful knowledge. . . Works of a juvenile character would not, therefore, as a general rule, be suited to the purposes of the law."

In the volume entitled "Decisions of the Superintendents of Schools," published by him in 1837, Mr. Dix gives one of his own decisions on this subject in the following language:

> School district libraries are intended for the inhabitants of school districts; as well for those who have completed their common school education as for those who have not. The primary object of their institution was to disseminate works suited to the intellectual improvement of the great body of the people, rather than to throw into school districts, for the use of young persons, works of a merely juvenile character. . . I doubt, therefore, the right of the inhabitants to restrict the choice of books to be taken from the library to scholars attending the district school. They may have the privilege of drawing them if the inhabitants adopt such a rule; but I think any such rule must be subject to the right of any inhabitant to take from the library for perusal any book in it.

It is worthy of note that in the law of 1835 these libraries are called *district libraries* simply, never school district libraries, and least of all district school libraries, which last term countenances the very popular notion that the libraries were originally intended for schools. The district was merely a unit of size supposed to be suitable for a free public library. I cannot better substantiate the allegation that the departure has been great from the original design of the district library of Gov. Dix than by reading a part of the section of the Connecticut law, enacted in 1839, only four years after the New York law of 1835, when the contrast will be evident: Any school district . . . is hereby authorized to levy a tax . . . for the

purpose of establishing and maintaining a common school library . . . for the use of the children of such district."

We have now in chronological order reached the town library proper. The first on record so far as known, is that of Salisbury, Conn., supported by the town without authority of state law, from previous to the Revolution for many years after, but not now in existence. The next is the Peterborough, N.H., public town library, established by the town in 1833, and still in existence, but maintained by the town for seventeen years previous to the general state law on the subject.* The first town or city library for which a special state law was enacted was for that of the city of Boston—in 1848.

The honor belongs to New Hampshire of having been the first among the states to place upon her statute-book a general law authorizing towns to maintain libraries to be as free to all the inhabitants as the common school. Its legislature, on July 6, 1849, adopted without amendment a bill introduced June 29, by Dr. J. C. Eastman, of Hampstead, Rockingham Co., with the title, "An act for the establishment of public libraries," and it was approved by the Governor on July 7. The law was so complete and satisfactory in its provisions that it has remained unchanged as the law of the state to the present time, and under it at least twenty libraries are maintained by the same number of towns.

In apportioning the honors of precedency in inaugurating successive portions of this great movement, this is the proper place to mention that the first constitution of the state of Michigan contains this important clause, one perhaps not yet found elsewhere in the organic act of any state: "The legislature shall also provide for the establishment of at least one library in every township." The legislation by the state of Indiana in 1852, allowing each county to raise by tax seventy-five dollars a year to maintain a county library, free to the inhabitants, is of a kindred nature.

It is a point of some importance and worthy of observation that from the day of the passage of these laws the word *public*, as applied to libraries, has gradually been acquiring an extension of its meaning which did not before belong to it. The "public" designated by its earlier usage was the public that enjoyed the use of a library which was owned in common by

* Dr. Smith's History of Peterborough," 1876.

stockholders, or by annual subscribers. The law of April 1, 1796, of New York, entitled "An act to incorporate such persons as may associate for the purpose of procuring and creating *public* libraries in this state," yet contained in it such a limitation as this, that "a part of a right in said library shall not entitle the owner thereof to any privilege . . . in said library or corporation." The law of Indiana, as late as 1852, with the title, "An act to establish public libraries," contained no provision for the use of the books by any persons but the stockholders of such libraries. In the exemptions of certain property from taxation, in the statutes of 1829 of the state of New York, one specification is in these terms: "The real and personal property of every public library," which could only mean proprietary associations, for the public free library had not yet appeared above the horizon, and the "public" designated was as limited as the number of proprietors.

Since the British libraries' act of 1850, and the opening of the Manchester library in England, and the Astor Library in New York, and the Boston Public Library in the same year, with the passage of the Massachusetts law of 1851, there has been a continuous progressive activity in establishing free town libraries. The passage of the British and Massachusetts laws of 1851 stimulated considerable activity in 1852, 3, and 4, to favor library associations on the part of states not ready to favor taxation for town libraries. This was true of Indiana in 1852 and New York in 1853.

Maine adopted a town library law in 1854; Ohio, Vermont and Rhode Island, in 1867; Connecticut in 1869; Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, New York and Wisconsin, in 1872; Texas in 1874; Nebraska in 1875; Michigan in 1877, and California in 1878, making sixteen states in all that have given their approbation to the same general system. These laws are not all equally comprehensive, but all these states fairly deserve to be included.

Several of the states have occasionally made amendments to their public libraries' law, some of which have been alluded to by Mr. Poole in his paper. Those states that have been most deeply engaged in sustaining school district libraries have had the most difficulty in bringing themselves into the town library system. The present Ohio law is a very good example of the shape that may be given to legislation to secure the

desired transition. It allows school officers to deposit their libraries for use in the town libraries. Michigan has at last secured a good law, which sets the towns free from any embarrassments arising from the school libraries; unfortunately it confines the application of the law to towns having less than ten thousand inhabitants; but this section will probably be soon repealed. Nebraska had a capital law, passed in 1875; but a clause introduced as a rider, confined the law to the single city of Brownsville. Two years after, not only was this final section repealed, but the operation of the law was extended to the towns as well as the cities.

Several of the states seem to have received the boon of a public library law in advance of any general demand for it in the state. Yet the same thing had been true of the school library laws, which found their place upon the statute-book as the result of the constant appeals of their friends, who were sanguine as to the grand results which would follow. The generous zeal of a single individual is often allowed easily to carry through the legislative halls successfully a bill for a pet and supposed harmless scheme, yet, if he himself afterwards fails to prosecute the matter so as to secure the advantages of the new law, perhaps nothing will be done by any other persons. Indiana library laws illustrate this. Successive acts of the legislature, from the year 1852 to the present time, testify to the presence there of many friends of books as educators, but with two or three exceptions, and those not resulting from the public library law, town libraries have been rarely established.

In the state of New York, a law authorizing the maintenance of public libraries by the towns and cities has been on the statute book since May 1, 1872, and yet very few persons have been aware of its existence. The gentleman who introduced the bill and secured its passage, has done nothing to make the law known. From the Index to the Revised Statutes * of 1875, it is next to impossible to infer the existence of such a law; and in the chapter in which it is found it is merged with "Library Associations" under the same series of sections, and the same running caption to the pages; the broad distinctive idea of town free libraries does not appear to have been before the mind of the person making the index. The town

* Bank's edition, 1875.

libraries of Syracuse, Newburg, Poughkeepsie, etc., are operated by these towns under a provision of the school law of 1847, by the boards of education; and we are not aware of a single library being maintained under the law of 1872. The law of Texas has as yet accomplished little, from the lack of a local population to claim its advantages; while local public opinion has been so effective in Massachusetts as to secure public libraries in more than a third of the 346 towns in the state since 1851.

There is great difference of opinion as to what are essential provisions in a town libraries' law. This is shown in the differences among the states in the length of the laws enacted. The law of Iowa, Rhode Island, and Texas is in a single short section; in Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New York, the law is embraced in two sections; in New Hampshire and Vermont, it is in four sections; in three of the states, Colorado, Ohio and Wisconsin, it is in seven, eight, and nine respectively; Nebraska and Michigan devote eleven sections to it, while Illinois requires twelve sections. The last section of each law, —of its immediately taking effect—we have not intended to count in any case.

The origin and nature of these variations in length become apparent when we trace the laws for these libraries chronologically. The law of New Hampshire, as the first, was evidently made use of in framing that of Massachusetts, of 1851. The latter derived from it the rather peculiar provision for the receipt of gifts, donations and bequests, which, however, had previously been engrafted upon the general laws for the incorporation of library associations. Indeed, this provision for bequests has been adopted by a majority of the states that have enacted a public libraries' law (Massachusetts, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Wisconsin). After the passage of the Massachusetts law of 1851, Connecticut, Iowa, Maine, New York, Texas and Vermont conform the language of their statutes to it, and to the principle, at first, of restricting taxation by towns to a definite sum annually, while they are all left to devise such local management as each town may deem suitable. But in 1872 Illinois struck out a new course, and passed a law, with minute details for organization, government, and management, in twelve sections. Ohio followed with two laws, one

for cities and another for towns, in nine sections each. The law of Illinois has been the basis of more library legislation in the western states than any other law. Its longest section is the one relating to bequests. In framing the last but one of the state laws,—the law of Michigan,—that of Illinois was chiefly followed, except in the 12th section of the latter, which refers to the losses of books by the great fire in Chicago.

In conclusion: The facts upon which we have dwelt show that the introduction of public libraries is one of the prominent movements of the period. It is well that it is so. The annual increase of printing is incredibly enormous; inventions of cheap paper stock and machinery are continually aiding this increase. Common schools are supplying undeveloped readers by millions in a perpetual stream. Well-chosen libraries, administered with generous sympathies, are for these readers a great necessity and a great boon. Must the multiplication of them be left solely to the spontaneous action of solitary individuals?

ESSENTIALS OF A GOOD LIBRARY LAW

The points for which a good library law should provide, including trustees, support and contracts, are briefly outlined by William Reed Eastman in this article presented at the Montreal Conference of the American Library Association. It helps to clarify our vision as to the serious nature of a library enterprise and its dependence upon legal authority.

Mr. Eastman is a graduate of Yale (1856) and of Union Theological Seminary. He served in the ministry for over twenty years, then took his degree from the New York State Library School. He served as inspector of public libraries in the state of New York, assistant in the State Library, and chief of the Educational-extension Division of the State Education Department, from which position he retired in 1913.

1. *Information.* When the people of a community begin to be interested in having a public library the first thing wanted is information. A knowledge of facts is the only proper basis of action. Their first call upon the state is that it shall tell them the latest results of library experience and advise them as to their course. Hence, the first point in library law is the creation of a state board or commission whose official business it shall be to learn library facts, study library methods, answer inquiries and publish results and in every possible way interest the public, promote new library enterprises, and enlarge the scope and value of those already existing.

A commission of five, each one to serve five years with one new appointment each year, will have a desirable permanence. If appointed by the governor on the ground of personal fitness the results will be better than if each commissioner is to represent some interest or is added because he already holds some other office.

The commission, receiving annually a report from every library in the state, should report a summary of all its facts, doings, and recommendations to each session of the legislature.

The commission may very properly, and with advantage to the state, have charge of the state library, appointing the librarian and all needed assistants, and make it the center of the library movement. A strong, inspiring personal leadership is of the first importance and, if means can be supplied, every such commission should have a paid executive whose time will be given to its work. If libraries are aided by the state, either by grants of money or books or traveling libraries, distribution should be made through the commission in accordance with their rules.

If the first legislation should stop with the creation of a commission instructed to report to the governor before the next session of the legislature a library law adapted to state conditions, it might lead to better results than those reached by any hasty action.

2. *Founding.* The law should provide for the founding of libraries by a method easily understood and readily followed. There are three ways of founding a library: by the gift of one person, by the combined gifts of many persons, or by the act of the community voting a public tax.

The law does not concern itself very much with the initial proceedings in the first two cases, but is concerned with every step in the establishment of a tax supported library.

In every state there is already a system of common schools. Libraries are also educational and their relations to the schools are vital, and an important question to be settled at this point is whether the public libraries shall be placed in the hands of the school authorities. Since these authorities are already in active service under a well organized system, it seems a very simple solution of the problem to add one more item to their duties. But long experience in several states is opposed to this course. In a multitude of cases the school district is too small to maintain a good library; the care of a library calls for a special personal fitness on the part of its trustees not always possessed by those chosen to do a different service. It has been found that in the combination of school and library under one management the library is liable to suffer for lack of both

attention and funds and it also fails to arouse the same public interest that it might receive if standing by itself as a distinct enterprise in care of a board chosen to promote a public library and for no other purpose.

But inasmuch as the school system is established and familiar to the people, the library system should be along lines parallel to it. Let any municipality or district, when holding its usual meeting to vote taxes for the year, have the power to establish a public library and to lay a tax to support it. If in a city or large village this tax levy for the school is commonly made by the common council or village board or by the school board, let the same course be taken for the library. Lest there should be some hesitation about bringing the subject before the meeting let the petition of 25 taxpayers be sufficient to require a vote. Let the principle of home rule be fully respected in this matter, and the power to found a library be as free as the power to start a public school. It will be convenient in preparing ballots for a library vote to include thereon the amount of yearly tax proposed, thus, on one ballot, "Library tax of....mills. Yes." Or, on another, "Library tax of ....mills. No."

A library so established by the voters or their representatives should be declared by law a body corporate. Free libraries founded by endowment or by associations should become incorporated under general corporation law, and on application to and approval by the state commission should be registered as associate libraries.

3. *Control.* The control of the library will be determined by the choice of trustees. They will be chosen by the body that founds the library, in cities, perhaps, on nomination of the mayor, from persons of recognized fitness. No one should be ineligible by reason of sex. The number should not be less than three nor more than seven. Five is a convenient number, allowing some division of labor, without impairing a sense of personal responsibility. Their terms of office should be not less than three nor, as a rule, more than five years. To secure a good degree of continuity in management their terms should be so arranged that only one or two will go out of office in any given year.

Direct control by any outside body is not desirable, but if

state aid is extended a proper standard should be fixed by the state commission as a condition of state aid.

4. *Support.* The law should insure the support of a library doing good work. At the time of establishment let a maximum rate of annual taxation for its support be fixed. After that the trustees should annually report to the body establishing the library the work done, the money spent, and the money needed for the next year. If this amount falls within the maximum it should be levied without question or vote. The maximum rate should not be diminished unless it is so voted at two consecutive annual elections.

Some have preferred to fix in the law a maximum rate for the whole state, but conditions vary so greatly that it seems better to leave this to local determination, and the very discussion of this question may increase public interest in the enterprise.

5. *Contract.* The law should permit the making of contracts for library privileges. There are several different conditions in which a contract offers the simplest, most convenient, and satisfactory solution of the difficulty of concurrent action. An established library, privately owned and controlled, may be glad to open its doors wide to the public if the public will pay the cost of the additional service required. The city will be better served by paying the cost to the private library than by founding a rival library of its own. On the other hand, many a community too small or too poor to maintain a good library may be glad to share the facilities of a neighboring library and to pay some small amount raised by taxation for the privilege. Another neighborhood would be greatly encouraged to found a library if it might hope to secure contracts with other districts. Combination for library purposes may thus be effected without tedious formalities. Such contracts should be referred to the state commission for approval. They might provide for lending books to individual borrowers in the contracting districts or for travelling libraries or for any other form of service deemed most convenient.

6. *Travelling libraries.* A state system of travelling libraries under charge of the state commission is desirable, not only to supply the best reading in distant districts, but to stir up a general library interest, give the commission tools to work

with, supply an object lesson, and lead to local movement for permanent libraries.

7. *Buildings.* Municipalities or districts should have the same power to take land and erect buildings or rent rooms for libraries as for schools.

8. *Exchanges.* All public and associate libraries should have the privilege of exchanging books and duplicates with the state library and with each other under rules of the state commission.

9. *Permanence.* The abolition of a public library should be more difficult than its foundation, requiring at least the vote of two consecutive annual meetings of the body that established it.

10. *Penalties.* Penalties for injury or detention of books should be named in the law. If wilful and continued they should be misdemeanors, punishable by fine and imprisonment.

BRANCH LIBRARIES

BRANCH LIBRARIES

One of the early problems of administration which faced the libraries in large cities was that of reaching all sections of the city. Delivery and distributing stations served to a certain extent but as early as the Centennial Library Conference at Philadelphia in 1876 experiments had been made with branches. These are discussed by Mr. Justin Winsor of the Boston Public Library and Mr. William T. Peoples of New York City as follows. A sketch of Mr. Winsor will be found in Volume 4.

Mr. Peoples was born in 1843 and died March 9, 1923. He became librarian of the Mercantile Library, New York City in 1873 and was made librarian emeritus in 1916.

Mr. Peoples attended the first American Library Association meeting and in the early days was one of the earnest, active members of the association. He was a member of the first A.L.A. Council, of the American Library Institute, the New York Library Club and the New York State Library Association.

Mr. Winsor.—The Boston Public Library now consists of a central library, containing the great students' collection in the Bates Hall, and a popular department of over 30,000 volumes. Communicating with headquarters daily, by boxes passing to and from, are six branch libraries, containing from seven to seventeen thousand volumes each, and situated at from two to seven miles from the central library, forming a cordon of posts. Farther outlying we have begun a system of deliveries or agencies, where orders for books are received, which are sent to the nearest branch or to the central library. The books are sent in response, and delivered at the delivery. In the same way the branches are deliveries of the central library. The system works well, and popularizes the institution; and

the branches and deliveries, instead of detracting from the importance of the central library, only serve to advertise it and to increase its circulation, so that now the issues of the central library are between two and three times what they were in 1870, when we had no branches; and the grand total of issues of the entire library is now from four to five times what it was in that year. There is of course more or less delay in the delivery service, owing to our boxes passing but once each way in a day. I deem it not unlikely that much time will before long be saved by using a telegraphic wire for the messages; nor do I deem it impracticable to annihilate time by the pneumatic tube.

Mr. Barnwell hoped that the librarian of the Mercantile Library of New York would speak of his experience with branch libraries.

Mr. Peoples.—Several years ago our library tried the experiment of establishing branch libraries in the surrounding suburban towns. We opened them in the towns and villages of New Jersey and Connecticut, and places adjacent in our own State. Altogether I think we started twelve different branches. One of the conditions we required before we would open a branch was that we should receive at least one hundred subscribers to start with. We received the orders for the books that were wanted by mail or messenger every morning, and made the deliveries in the afternoon. At first the plan worked very well, but gradually the number of subscribers began to decrease, until finally we were compelled to close them for want of sufficient support. The only branch that we have at present is that located in the lower part of the city, established for the benefit of those who reside in Brooklyn and Jersey City, but who do business in New York. This branch is very successful. We circulate there as many as two and three hundred books daily. We have also a system of delivering books at the residences of members who do not care or are unable to come to the library. We have a form for ordering books, printed on the backs of postal-cards, with the address of the library on the front. These we sell for ten cents each. A member wishing a book, and being unable to come to the library, by

writing the name of the book wanted on the card, and dropping it in the nearest mail-box, can have the book delivered at his home. For this purpose we employ messengers.

Mr. Winsor.—I would draw attention to a practice which prevails in connection with the Public Library of Melbourne, which I think not unsuited for our Western States, where the population is less dense than in the East. That library sends a few hundred of books in boxes, which can of themselves become shelves when set up, into the inland towns, where an agent takes charge of them, and having circulated them for two or three months, returns them and receives another lot.

Mr. Cutter said that a somewhat similar method was employed at the Warren County Library, Monmouth, Ill.

Mr. Winsor.—Another custom, likely to be of some use as a precedent, is in vogue at Hamburg. Seven libraries in that city, in buying books of which one accessible copy will suffice for its citizens, apportion the departments of knowledge among them, and once a year issue a joint catalogue in one alphabet, having indications against the titles of the particular library possessing the book.

BRANCH LIBRARIES, BOSTON

During the next year, in an unsigned article in *The Library Journal,* the results of Boston's experiments with branches were recounted.

The establishing of branches of a central institution was authorized in the original acts of the Legislature of Massachusetts as in the permissive bills of Great Britain, passed at about the same time; but while in England the advantage of them was availed of at once, and in some instances the branch preceded the main trunk in development, no public library in America extended its usefulness in this way before the Boston Public Library opened its first branch at East Boston, late in 1870, eighteen years after the founding of the institution. The Mercantile Library of New York had previously opened branches at Yonkers, on Long Island, and elsewhere, but the experiment was not attended with success, and they have long since been discontinued.

There was some doubt felt as to the effect that branches might have upon the central library, when in Boston, in 1870, the question of beginning such a system was under consideration. It seemed to be the general opinion that the importance of the main collection would be diminished, and that something like a frittering away of the opportunity for Boston to have a great library would ensue. Those charged with the examination of the question, however, were soon convinced to the contrary. It was found, by a careful analysis of the registration of borrowers, that vicinage was the important factor in the elements of success. Just in proportion to the remoteness of residence of the borrowers, their proportion to the population decreased. In East Boston, which is an island, connecting with the city proper by a ferry, it was found that the chance for a resident to become a user of the library was only from a quarter to a third as great as it was for a citizen in the city proper. With Roxbury and South Boston the ratio maintained just the same sort of proportion to the ease of approach to the

central library. This seemed conclusive that it only needed books to be put in those districts in as close connection with the people as they were in the compacter parts of the city to make the use of them commensurate. The other part of the question still remained: Would this newly-developed use detract from the hold which the main collection might have upon the people? In this connection the general question of the help of branches in all business operations in building up an enlarged sphere for the central department was considered. It was found that while they create and supply a constituency of their own, they also serve to make known to a larger degree the existence and capabilities of the parent institution. In this faith the system was begun in Boston. What the result has been will appear from the following table, in which are given the issues of the various departments of the library as they were in the month of March in 1870, when there was no branch whatever, and in March, 1877, when there were six branches, two of them having dependencies still further outlying in the system.

		March 1870	1877
Central Library	Bates Hall	6,996	16,744
	Lower Hall	23,678	43,579
Branches	East Boston	——	13,180
	South Boston	——	16,531
	Roxbury	——	18,236
	Charlestown	——	13,365
	Brighton	——	3,492
	Dorchester	——	8,339
Totals		30,674	133,466

Here we have an increase of over four hundred per cent in seven years.

The reader will understand that the Bates Hall is the main reference collection—though the largest part of it circulates—and that its issues in the interval have considerably more than doubled. This department is to some extent drawn upon by the clientage of the branches, who leave their orders for books from its shelves at the branch; the order in due course reaches the central library, and the books are sent to and delivered at the branch. The Lower Hall answers in character to the

branches, that is, it is distinctly a popular collection, and it will be seen that its issues are nearly a hundred per cent more than they were before any one of its six branches were established. The figures of the intervening years show a steady increase, so that the present figures are the result of a gradual increase, and not a spasmodic expansion.

BRANCH LIBRARIES

Twenty years later we find the principle widely adopted but much variation in the administration of these branches and in the relation of the branch to the central organization. Our excuse for violating at this point our rule not to include in our quotations the work of any of the editors of this series is that the following summary is the only one available for this particular stage of branch development. The author, Dr. Bostwick, at the time of writing was librarian of the New York Free Circulating Library, merged with the New York Public Library in 1901.

In speaking of branch libraries I shall adhere to the definition of such libraries as it is generally given, to distinguish them from delivery or distributing stations. A distributing or delivery station has no stock of books of its own for circulation, and merely circulates those that are sent to it for the purpose from some central point. A branch library has its own permanent stock of books. Mr. George W. Cole, in a paper on "Branches and deliveries," read at Chicago in 1893, makes a still further distinction between delivery and distributing stations, giving the former name to places where books are sent for delivery in response to a particular order, and the latter to places where small stocks of books are sent from time to time for circulation.

All three—branch libraries, delivery stations, and distributing stations—or any two of these, may of course exist in the same library system, as at Boston, where there are 10 branches and 16 delivery stations. Others have only the one or the other. At the Chicago Public Library for instance, there are no branches, but 32 delivery stations, although six of these have reading-rooms and small reference libraries connected with them.* On the other hand, the principal free cir-

* The figures here given are for early in 1897, and may not now hold good.

culating libraries in New York City, the Aguilar, with four branches and our own library with nine, have no regular delivery stations at all. In our own case we have used schools and clubs as temporary distributing centres, but circulation through such temporary stations is really a travelling library system and its consideration is entirely without the limits of this paper.

Of course a branch may be at the same time a delivery or a distributing station. This has been notably the case with some of our newly established branches, where the stock of books was small and loans for distribution were made freely from the older and better stocked libraries. It is so to some extent with all our branches at present, for one branch often borrows from another for distribution classes of books in which the former branch is weak. Any book in one branch may also be ordered at another, thus making the second play the part of a delivery station for the first. The relative merits of branches and delivery or distributing stations have been much discussed, but so far as our experience goes the solution lies in just this sort of combination of the two, the branches specializing to some extent and interchanging books freely.

The existence of branch libraries seems to imply that of a parent stem, but in some cases, for instance, that of the New York Free Circulating Library, the parent has been dwarfed by its progeny and now appears as one of them. Our library has therefore sometimes been called a "system of libraries," or a "circulating library system," but it differs from other libraries only in having no large central building. It is thus an example of the fact, which to many may seem paradoxical, that the usual organization of a large central library with smaller dependent branches, is accidental and not necessary to the system. There must of course be a department of administration, where shall be performed all the operations that it is not expedient to allow each branch library to perform for itself; but this need not be located in any library building at all, or if so, it may be placed in an insignificant branch as well as in an important one.

On the organization and functions of this general department of administration really depends that of the whole system of branches. According as it does everything except what the branches must do, or does only what the branches cannot do,

the system is centralized, approaching that of a single library with delivery stations, or localized, approaching a federation of separate libraries. In reality the system may have almost any position between these two extremes. As in any group of related things, there are always at work in such a system the centrifugal and the centripetal forces that have been exemplified on a grander scale in the history of our own government—one working for centralization and the other for localization. Exacly what position is taken up under the action of these two forces depends on conditions and environment, and probably no two libraries occupy exactly the same rank in this respect. For instance, in the completely centralized library, those in charge of the branches would have absolutely no voice in their management nor in the choice of books. Books would be accessioned, prepared for the shelves, and cataloged at the administration building, all lists and bulletins would be prepared there, etc. On the other hand, in the completely localized library each branch would do all this work for itself and would have its own rules. In the extreme case each would have its separate librarian, responsible only to the trustees.

One of the determining conditions toward either centralization or localization would be, of course, the previous existence of one or more branches as separate libraries that were afterwards absorbed into the larger organization. In such a case it may be necessary or expedient to leave a larger measure of local control than would otherwise be done. Centralizing tendencies, however, have usually gained the day.

In Boston several of the present branches were originally separate libraries. At Pratt Institute the Long Island Branch, and in Philadelphia the Chestnut Hill Branch were formerly independent. In New York two branches of the Aguilar were taken in from other management, and the Free Circulating assumed charge in May last of the first branch acquired in this way—the Riverside in West 69th street. In nearly all these cases old methods have been at once altered to conform with the usage of the main library. The exceptions are the Aguilar, where the branches so acquired are still permitted to use their own methods of circulation, but are uniform in other respects, and the new Riverside branch of the Free Circulating, which by special agreement retains the open-shelf system, and thus differs in some respects from the older branches. The open-

shelf system, however, has also been introduced in the newest branch—the Yorkville, at Second ave. and 79th st., and there is some probability that it may be adopted elsewhere, so that we may see the unusual case of the older branches of a library taking up one of the features of the newest branch.

As regards the preparation and cataloging of books, the existing libraries that have branches are in various stages, generally inclining, however, to centralization.

At Pratt Institute the branches have separate registers, catalogs, and shelf lists, but the main library does all accessioning and keeps all applications. Cataloging is done at the branch, the title-page being marked at the main library. At Baltimore and Philadelphia the branches have separate accession books, but these are all kept at the main library, while each branch retains its own register. At Boston each branch has a separate accession book and register, but cataloging is all done at the central library, which is also the case in Baltimore and Philadelphia. In New York, both at the Aguilar and the Free Circulating, each branch is complete in itself as regards accession book, register, and catalog, and cataloging is done chiefly at the branch, under the direction of the central cataloging department.

At Boston there is at the central library a union catalog, accession book, and register; Pratt Institute has a union accession book but no union catalog nor register; Baltimore has a union shelf list and a printed union finding list; Philadelphia has an official union catalog at the central library. In New York the Aguilar has no union accession book, register, or catalog; the Free Circulating has a union shelf list and is making a union card catalog, a duplicate of which it is intended to place in every branch. The monthly bulletin of accessions is printed in union form.

An important requisite, if there are to be union catalogs or lists, is uniformity of numbering in all the branches. This exists or is attempted at Pratt Institute, Baltimore, and the Aguilar, and the work of making the numbers uniform has been nearly finished at the Free Circulating. At Boston no attempt has yet been made to have numbers uniform at all the branches, but such uniformity is considered by the librarian highly desirable and will probably be realized in the future.

In Philadelphia numbers are the same at all the branches, but not necessarily the same as those of the central library.

In other details, however, the necessity for uniformity is not so great, and it is always necessary for the librarian to ask himself whether uniformity among branches in a given case is more desirable than a departure from it in the interest of a particular locality. In general we may say that in all matters that pertain to the systematic and routine work of the library uniformity is the first thing to be considered. Then an assistant from one branch can be transferred to another at a moment's notice and fall into her place quickly and natuarally. The machinery of such a system is like that of a machine-made watch or gun, where the parts are thoroughly interchangeable —that of a branch which has its own peculiar methods, excellent though they may be, is like the Swiss watch that must have a wheel made especially to fit the place of one that gives out. But in minor matters each branch should adapt itself to local conditions. All cannot have rooms of the same size and shape, and the same arrangement of shelving. It is on the proper drawing of this line between uniformity and non-uniformity that the success of a system of branch libraries largely depends, and the fact that every library has drawn it in a slightly different place and is generally satisfied with that place shows that what is good for Philadelphia may not be good for Boston or for New York.

Another region where the line may be drawn in different places is that of the relations between those in charge of the branches and their chief. The names given to these officials are often significant of the tendency toward centralization or the reverse. The head is sometimes simply the librarian, and they are "custodians" or at most "assistants-in-charge." At the Free Circulating Library they are librarians-in-charge and he is librarian-in-chief. The former nomenclature belongs to a more highly centralized system than the latter. There may, of course, be various ways of keeping in touch with the heads of branches and of keeping them in touch with each other. At Boston the heads of the branches meet at the central library once a week for consultation with the Supervisor of Branches and Stations. At Philadelphia there is no stated meeting, except on pay-day once a month. At Baltimore each custodian reports personally at the central library every Monday morning.

At the Free Circulating Library there is a weekly meeting of librarians-in-charge of branches, at which the chief librarian presides, and at which views are interchanged freely. At Baltimore the chief librarian visits the branches fortnightly, at Pratt about once a month, at Philadelphia "pretty frequently," at the Aguilar once a week, and at the Free Circulating Library several times a week—from twice to five times, oftener the latter. There is also telephone communication in Philadelphia, at the New York Free Circulating, and probably in other cases where it is not specially reported. It seems to me that the officer in charge of the branches, usually the chief librarian, but sometimes a special supervisor as at Boston, in order to do his work to the best advantage must see the heads of branches both all together and separately. In other words he must meet with them at stated times and must also visit each branch frequently. Some necessary information can best be obtained by informal comparison of experiences and some by separate report. Here again we have the balance between uniformity and localization.

Besides these informal word-of-mouth discussions and reports, of course something more formal is necessary at stated intervals. At the New York Free Circulating Library written reports embracing a variety of details, somewhat greater in number than those inserted in the annual report, are filled in on blank forms by the different librarians-in-charge monthly and submitted to the chief librarian, to be shown by him to the library committee. In Boston the custodians of the branches report each month to the central library their circulation, books received from the central library, their accessions, losses, fines, registrations, and a record of library publications which they have distributed. At Philadelphia each librarian communicates with the chief librarian whenever there is anything special to report. At the Aguilar Library there are monthly reports on the lines already laid down, as also at Pratt Institute. At the Enoch Pratt Library the librarian states that reports are made weekly, but it is possible that he does not refer to written reports. At the Free Circulating Library a special feature of the monthly reports is the comparison of the circulation, reading-room attendance, etc., with that of the corresponding month in the year previous. By this means we keep a close watch on the condition of each branch, so far as its decrease or

increase of usefulness is concerned. By this means also a healthy rivalry is stimulated, each librarian-in-charge striving to increase the work done by the branch at a more rapid rate than the others.

The annual reports can of course be made up from the monthly reports, but it is better to require each branch to submit a special annual report, covering additional details. In the Free Circulating Library, for instance, class percentages are made out only once a year and the total number of books in the libraries is reported at the same time. In Boston the additional points covered are statistics of binding and classification, and a general history of the previous year.

The different position of various libraries in the scale between centralization and localization is shown again in the parts taken by librarians of branches in the selection of books. At Pratt Institute, for instance, the heads of branches make suggestions of books that seem most in demand at their several branches. At Philadelphia the librarians-in-charge are requested from time to time to send in lists of books, and their recommendations are generally followed. The limitation denoted by that word "generally" is more closely defined by the librarian when he adds, "If they ask for 'The sorrows of Satan' they don't get it." In Boston "branch-custodians are invited to recommend books for addition to their branches." At Baltimore, those in charge of branches have no voice in the selection of books, although they may suggest to the librarian what they want. At the Aguilar the librarians-in-charge make lists and in almost all cases the library committee acts favorably on the suggestions. At the Free Circulating Library the lists of suggestions are made on order blanks and are read and discussed once a month at the meeting of librarians-in-charge. The greatest efforts are made to keep all heads of branches in touch with current literary criticism and to put them in a position where they can make out their lists intelligently. A set of the literary and critical papers is kept circulating from branch to branch, so that each is read carefully by all with a view to making orders. The librarian-in-chief feels that at any time he might safely entrust the ordering for a month to any one of the librarians-in-charge. In almost all libraries books are ordered from the administration department and sent there, being distributed afterward to the various branches.

There may be exceptions. For instance, current periodicals naturally go directly to the branch for which they are intended. In our own case, also, books for which there is an immediate call, or large special orders, are often sent directly to the branch of which they are to form a part.

The comparative fixity of the collection of books has already been mentioned as a peculiarity of the branch as distinguished from the delivery station. Exactly where the library stands in the scale between absolute fixity and absolute mobility depends largely on its size.

The number of volumes in a branch may vary, of course, within wide limits. In Boston the branches average about 15,000 each, in Philadelphia they vary from 4000 to up 24,000; at Baltimore from 10,000 to 14,000. At Pratt Institute the two branches contain respectively 3000 and 5000 volumes. In New York the Aguilar has 3000 in its smallest and 16,000 in its largest library, while at the Free Circulating our maximum and minimum are respectively 25,000 and 5000. The Boston average of 15,000 is a good one, and where there is free communication with a central library 10,000 probably need not be exceeded at a large branch, while 5000 is enough for excellent work at a small one. The reason for branches that approximate 25,000 is either that they were formerly complete and separate libraries, or that they contain many books that should properly find a place in a central repository for works not in constant demand, as with our larger branches.

In regard to exchange of books between different branches or between branches and the main library there is wide difference of usage. In Baltimore there is no such free exchange. In Boston and Philadelphia there is little of it between branches; in Boston, because the branches are largely duplicates of each other, and in Philadelphia, because interchange is not encouraged, even with the central library. In Boston, however, books from the central library are constantly drawn out through the branches. At Pratt Institute books are sent from the central library to the branches, but there is no exchange between the latter. At the Aguilar only certain classes of books are exchanged. At the Free Circulating we have tried our best to encourage the freest kind of exchange between branches, publishing union bulletins and lists constantly, and reminding the public that the whole library's stock of books can be drawn upon freely. So

far, however, the privilege has not been made use of as fully as we could wish, perhaps owing to our limited messenger service. Another way to get at free use of the library's whole stock of books is to allow drawing from more than one branch, or to make transfer simple and easy. Thus at Philadelphia persons may have cards at more than one library, although they are not encouraged to use more than one at a time. At Pratt Institute, Baltimore, the Aguilar and the Free Circulating no person may have out books at two branches at the same time. At Boston there is unusual freedom in this respect. Every borrower may have out two books at the same time. If he has a special-privilege card he may have six additional books. There is no restriction as to where these books shall be drawn, so that in an extreme case a person might have out a book from each of eight different branches. These are all charged on the same card—in red ink if from the central library, otherwise in green, with the branch's initial.

The trouble about giving such privileges is not so much an objection to one person's having out several books at once as the danger that a person who has been debarred from using his own branch as a penalty for misconduct will simply go to another. In the Free Circulating Library we issue temporary transfer cards, which are simply evidences that the holder is in good and regular standing, and which enable him to draw a book from any branch he wishes to use. It is evident that if persons are to be prohibited from taking out cards at more than one branch means must be adopted to discover violations of this provision. At the Free Circulating Library all applications are made in duplicate, one copy being filed at the branch where application is made, and one at the comparison department. Whenever examination of the slips filed at this department shows that the applicant has already been a member at some branch, that branch is notified and reports at once. If the applicant is in good standing he is given a transfer, otherwise his application is refused. It may seem that this comparison is simple enough, but it is not always so. To locate John Smith among a hundred or so of exactly the same name, and to try to identify him with some of them by address or handwriting—both uncertain—is not at all easy. The work of filing and comparison for nine libraries takes

half the time of one assistant, and would probaby take the whole time of one not so skilled as she has become.

The question continually comes up, whether the game is worth the candle, and whether all this elaborate detective system is justified by the saving of a few books and the detection of a few small boys' efforts to evade payment of fines, especially when by the giving of a fictitious name, as is often done, the whole machinery may be made of none effect. The conclusion with us has always been, so far, that the moral effect of the system on the public is its justification. As soon as the impression gains ground that a library is careless and can be cheated with impunity a great many persons are tempted to try the experiment who otherwise would never think of such a thing.

The number of assistants at a branch library will, of course, depend largely on the work required, being least where the tendency is toward making the branch a mere distributing station and greatest where it approximates an independent library. Thus most librarians hesitate to lay down a general rule on this point. At the New York Free Circulating Library we find that one is required for about every 2000 of monthly circulation, and the Aguilar reports that its experience is the same. In Boston one assistant is required for 1250 of monthly circulation. In Philadelphia one branch of 28,000 circulation has 14 assistants, and another of 16,000 has 9—just about our proportion, while the smallest branch, with 1700 circulation, has two. Pratt Institute requires the full time of two assistants and half the time of a third for circulations of 2000 to 3000 volumes. But, of course, any rule that lays down a ratio of number of assistants to circulation will hold good only where a considerable number is required. We have operated a branch from 2 till 9 p. m., circulating about 2000 a month, with only one librarian, and a branch open from 9 a.m. till 9 p.m., circulating 7000, with only two. This shows what can be done in extreme cases, but, of course, in these instances the labors of the assistants, aside from direct attention to the circulation, were made as light as possible.

THE BRANCH LIBRARY AND ITS RELATION TO THE DISTRICT

Branch libraries had ceased to be experiments in 1911, but they still had their problems of organization and administration which are presented in the next two articles, given at the Pasadena Conference of the A.L.A. In the first we have a good description of a branch functioning fully in its special field. This is by Clara E. Howard of the Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh.

Miss Howard was born in 1879, graduated from the University of Illinois with the degree of B.L.S., in 1901 and has been Teacher-librarian at the Schenley High School since 1916. She held positions in the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh continuously from 1901 to 1916, nine years of which were spent as branch librarian at the Wylie Avenue Branch. She was special lecturer at the University of Illinois, in 1919 and associate professor in the University of Michigan for the summer session of 1922.

Within the past ten years the duties of a branch librarian in Pittsburgh have changed. When the branches were first opened it was found necessary to keep a great many records, but since the running machinery is in order, many of the details of the organization have been done away with. At present the only records kept are those which are not obtainable at the central library. The branches depend upon the central for figures of additions and number of volumes in their collections, and the central expects from the branches only those figures for which the branch is responsible. The monthly and annual statistical reports of each branch are now compiled in the central office where they have an adding machine. As much routine as possible has been done away with and as our books come to us already accessioned, shelflisted and cataloged it

remains for us only to check our orders, file our cards and get our books into circulation.

The object of this change was, first to do away with unnecessary duplication of work, and secondly to give the branch librarian more time for field work which is much more vital. In some of the fundamental principles a certain amount of uniformity is required, but as the eight branch districts in Pittsburgh are so different and individual, it is the policy of the library to give the branch librarian full power to develop the district as she may see fit, so long as she keeps within her appropriation and the general policy of the library system. She has no limits except the physical ones, the size of her building and staff. She is made to feel that the library board and the librarian particularly are in sympathy with what she is trying to do, and that she has their hearty coöperation. She becomes a part of the community in which she works, and is vitally interested in all its activities. In this respect a branch library closely resembles a library in a small community.

The Wylie Avenue Branch is situated in the heart of what is known as the "Hill District." At one time this was a very well-to-do part of Pittsburgh with substantial and well built homes, but for the most part this better class of people, the old families and even the lower middle class have left the district, and their places have been taken by foreigners and negroes. The homes were originally built for one or two families, but they have been changed to such an extent that we now find five or six families occupying the same building. Many of the parlors have been turned into storerooms and here we find tailors, grocers, butchers, bakers and toby-makers who make up the trades people of the neighborhood. The entire neighborhood is badly congested, and it is a common occurrence for a family to move five or six times a year in their efforts to find more livable quarters.

The nationalities represented at the branch are American, English, Jewish, Russian, German, Austrian, Italian, Roumanian, Hungarian, French, Negro, Scotch, and Irish. The district is essentially Jewish, but the people are divided into groups of German Jews, Russian Jews and Roumanian Jews, so there is a lack of community life and community interest. Few women among the foreigners use the library. Either they are suspicious of all reading on account of the years of oppression

in their native land, or they have very little time from their household drudgery or they do not know how to read. The foreign men seem more anxious to get books in their native languages and read constantly. The library has been working to get a good collection of books in the foreign languages, as they are now looked upon as a means of establishing a home feeling in a new country where the foreigner can be brought into a sympathetic understanding of our life and institutions. The public school looks after the children of the aliens, but the parents land in America when they are beyond the age of the elementary school and very often the only way they can learn is through unpleasant experiences. Books which tell the parent that it is against the law to send his child to work before he is fourteen, what the taxes are for and where they go, where to get naturalization papers and questions of similar nature save the foreigner a great deal of embarrassment at times and render him a service which he does not soon forget. It is really marvelous how readily the foreigners do assimilate. They are quick to learn and many times their efforts to secure an education after they are advanced in years is pathetic. They want to learn English and will even ask for a copy of the alphabet that they may learn to read and write at home. Primers, first and second readers are in constant demand by the parents, and the library buys all the so-called "Helps to Foreigners" that can be procured.

One of the most important agencies of the district is of course the public school. Regular visits are planned in the fall when the schools are well started to meet the principal and new teachers, to tell them about the library and its catalogs especially The Children's Catalog and Graded List of Books for use in the schools, the picture collection and the books on the Teachers' Reading Circle list. Our plan of coöperation is explained and the teachers are usually most cordial. One of the strongest points that we try to make is to get the teachers to notify us in advance if they are to assign a special topic for composition work or outside reading so that we may have the material looked up before the children come in for it. If the principal is willing, and usually she is most anxious for us to visit the different rooms, we tell the children about the library, how they may get cards to take books home and that the library has many books which their fathers and mothers

might like. An announcement is also made at this time of the story hours for the little children and the older boys and girls. If requested to do so, we tell stories in the different rooms. In my own district we visit the schools only once a year, as each visit brings in such overwhelming results that we cannot take care of all who come. We also feel that we might wear out our welcome if we visited more often. Friendly visits are made at other times, however, to see the work of the school.

An arrangement is also made whenever possible with the two high schools in the district to enable us to have the material looked up and reserved before the demand comes.

A very progressive night school is also conducted in one of our schools, designed especially to meet the needs of foreigners. The enrollment is 1200 and 29 nationalities are represented. Old men and women, husbands and wives and half-grown children eager to learn take advantage of every opportunity. A great many of the teachers are regular borrowers at the branch and have asked for coöperation with their evening classes. Debates, recitations and questions in civics are looked up for them and a list of good books for foreigners to read after they have reached a certain degree of proficiency in English is about to be prepared.

There are two large and very active social settlements in the districts. Kingsley House conducts many classes in gymnasium work, basketry and bead work, sewing, dressmaking, typewriting and stenography, telegraphy, domestic science, manual training, weaving and dancing and the library is constantly called upon for books along these lines. Just now the residents are making their plans to open their summer home, about twenty miles in the country, where they entertain parties of 250 for two weeks at a time from the poorer districts of the city from June to October, besides many hundreds of visitors who go for one day only. The instructor in manual training is having the boys make kites, stilts and bird houses and such things that will be used in the country, and the library was asked to furnish patterns and designs for this work. We are also going to furnish a case of books about insects, birds, flowers and trees and a general collection of books for the children and mothers for use during their stay at the summer home.

The other settlement is Jewish entirely and much of the class work is among foreigners who have recently come to the

city. The Jewish children are very precocious and much of the work done for them is along the line of debating clubs and literary societies. This settlement has a large reading room for the use of the members, but for the most part the collection consists of books for recreation so that practically all of the reference work for the clubs is done at the branch.

In this connection I may mention a serious defect of the branch library system and that is the lack of a Poole set of magazines kept at the branch. It is out of the question to buy a complete set even were there room at each branch to store it. The borrowers usually want the information right away and are unwilling to pay the car fare necessary to get to the central library, nor do they want to wait until the messenger can bring it. At present we have messenger service three times a week, but we hope some day to have a daily messenger and this will in a way alleviate this difficulty. We have estimated for this for several years, but the final appropriation has not warranted it.

Each of the settlements has one or two friendly visitors and nurses with whom we coöperate. If children come to the library and we think they need attention or medical aid we find out which settlement they attend and ask the nurse of that settlement to look after them. If not a member of either settlement we refer all Jewish cases to one and the rest to the other settlement.

We are occasionally called upon to look after some of the proteges of the Juvenile Court who are released upon probation. They are allowed to come to the library for books and the assistants at the branch make a special effort to see that they get the proper sort of books.

A children's librarian is occasionally sent down to the Temporary Home for Children to tell stories and the matron has at times brought the children to the regular branch for story hour.

The Boy Scout movement has recently developed in Pittsburgh and within the neighborhood there are several patrols already established. This gives rise to the demand for Boy Scout books and also books on allied subjects such as camp-life, fishing and hunting.

Besides the foreigners in the Hill District there is also a large colored population. Very little is done for them in the

city. While the settlements do not actually bar their doors against them the negroes do not feel free to avail themselves of the privileges. The playground of the district admits them because it is more or less a city institution, but they have found that separate classes for them is the best plan.

The library conducts a study club for colored women. The work taken up is literary in character and prominent men and women, both colored and white, have given their services for an evening's entertainment. For the basis of good work the club membership is limited to twenty-five, and all vacancies are filled from a waiting list. The members are the better class negroes, and most of the young women are employed in some kind of work, such as hair-dressing, dressmaking, stenography or general office work. While most of the members come from the district around the branch a few are from the surrounding suburbs. The club is looked upon as one of the social organizations of the city, its meetings are announced from the pulpits, and at the annual open meeting there is usually a very representative negro audience. A list of books of interest to colored people was at one time sent to the local colored newspaper and this list has appeared weekly with the call number of the books. There was also an editorial urging the men and women to become familiar with the books which were to be found in the library.

So far I have spoken only of the work that has been accomplished at the Wylie Avenue Branch. We feel that very little has been done to advertise the library because we have been handicapped by the size of our building and staff. The greatest problem has been to handle effectively the crowds that come of their own accord, for during the busy months our attendance is often over two thousand a day. We are looking forward to the time when our building can be enlarged, when we can take a more active interest in the district working especially through the toby-factories.

The other branches in the city have worked along different lines. The West End Branch has reached good results through several clubs conducted by the branch. South Side, which is in a great mill district, has found it advisable to open the branch as a social meeting-place for the men, and very crude quarters are provided for them in the basement, where they

may smoke if they wish. In the Homewood district the Board of Trade has been very much interested in the branch and its work, and there has been active coöperation with the Homewood Civic Club. The East Liberty Branch has coöperated with the local Board of Trade of that district and one of the strongest allies has been the churches. Mothers' meetings have also been a potent factor.

The problems of the branches are so many and so diversified that once a week the branch librarians meet with the superintendent of adult circulation to talk them over and make such recommendations as seem feasible. This meeting follows the regular weekly book order meeting. Once a month a meeting is held of all leading department assistants who can be spared and still keep the branches running. At this time there are usually one or two speakers from outside the field and one speaker from the library staff who tells of the special work she is trying to do. These meetings are planned to keep the assistants in touch with what is going on in their own library and round about them.

LIMITATIONS OF THE BRANCH LIBRARIAN'S INITIATIVE

In this paper one of the debatable questions of branch organization is discussed—the degree of independence of the branch from the central library and the resultant influence upon the work which may be accomplished by the branch.

Mr. Charles Harvey Brown graduated from Wesleyan University and the New York State Library School. Among other positions he served for five years as reference librarian of the John Crerar Library in Chicago, as assistant librarian of the Brooklyn Public Library for ten years, and in the A.L.A. war service in 1917-1919, when he became library specialist for the U.S. Navy Department. He is now librarian of the Iowa State College at Ames, Iowa.

As good American citizens we have from our earliest days been thoroughly imbued with the spirit of Patrick Henry, "Give me liberty, or give me death." We as librarians have sometimes applied this motto to our professional work, holding up before ourselves as our ideal, independent positions. We dislike to be limited in our work in any way, and it is possible we may at times spend many minutes in thinking how much more successful our libraries would be if we were not hampered by what we may at times consider necessary evils, such as boards of trustees, chief librarians and in our larger libraries superintendents of departments. It cannot be denied that there are many advantages in allowing heads of libraries, whether they be branch librarians or librarians of independent city libraries freedom of action. Why should not branch librarians be given the same privilege of initiative which the chief librarians expect in dealing with their boards? Those directly in charge of branches know the immediate needs of their

own communities better than those at the head of large systems of libraries, many of which have to deal with different types and races of people. An over-centralized system may involve the loss of originality and what is worse the loss of enthusiasm and interest among the assistants. Even in these days of mechanical progress a machine will not do as a reference librarian or a loan desk attendant. If the decision of the small every-day problems which are continually arising must wait until some administrative officer, usually several miles away, can be consulted, we shall have continual trouble and vexation of spirit not only on the part of the assistants immediately concerned, but also of the public. On the other hand, it is obvious that there are many reasons why it is inexpedient for a branch to be entirely independent of its neighbors, as if it were in another city. The economic loss in doing the work of ordering, accessioning and cataloging the same title 25 or 30 times instead of once, the confusion to the public through different rules in different branches and the unnecessary duplications of books are a few of the many arguments against a decentralized system which will at once occur to us. How far, then, can we retain the advantages of decentralization and independent administration without injury to the service? To what extent must the initiative of the branch librarian be limited? Is it feasible to increase or decrease the limitation of freedom of action and what are the corresponding gains and losses?

It may be of interest to compare in a few points the administration of a branch library with that of an independent city library. How much of the authority that is usually given to the head of a city library can be given to a branch librarian? What are the agreements and what are the differences in the underlying conditions? How much actual and absolute independence of action can be given to the one and not to the other? Let us take as a basis of comparison branches and independent libraries of about the same circulation. At the head of the independent city library is the board of trustees with its various committees on administration, books, buildings, etc., to which the recommendations of the librarian are submitted. The branch librarian on the other hand has as her superior officers the chief librarian and the heads of departments to whom her recommendations may be submitted. The chief libra-

rian is an expert in library economy; the trustees usually are not. The assistants are appointed and removed in the one case by the board or a committee of the board after recommendation by the librarian; in the second case the branch librarian may or may not make recommendations as to the appointment or transfer of the assistants employed in a branch. The rules and regulations for the public are in the case of the independent library fixed by the board upon the recommendation of the librarian; the assistant in charge of a branch may or may not make recommendations to her superior officers as to changes of rules. In relation to other libraries and institutions there is a marked difference. The independent library does not usually have to consider the limitation of scope due to other libraries in the same city doing the same general work; the branch library must bear this continually in mind. The main difference, however, is in the amount of money available for library purposes. The circulation of the larger branches in New York and Brooklyn, such as Seward Park, Brownsville and Bushwick, compares not unfavorably in number with such cities as Worcester, Denver, Providence, Springfield, Grand Rapids and New Haven. The population of the districts reached by those branches varies from 50,000 to 150,000, as does the population of the cities mentioned, with the exception of Denver, which is larger. But the amount of money available for the support of these branches is, roughly speaking, in each case about one-half the library appropriation of the cities, even if the cost of the administration of the central office is distributed proportionally among the branches. This means in the case of the branches smaller buildings, fewer assistants and lower salaries. As the circulation is the same and requires the services of the same number of assistants in both cases, there will obviously be in the case of the branch library a smaller force available for other routine work.

Now to what extent do these differences limit the comparative freedom of action of the branch librarian, and how far do the agreements permit it. Let us take it as granted that it is desirable to give the branch librarian as much initiative as is consistent with economical administration and satisfactory service to the public. Bearing these facts in mind, it is not difficult to come to some general conclusions with regard to the administration of a large system of branches.

In the first place, the fact that the money available for a branch is much less than that for an independent city library with the same circulation, must involve certain economies of coöperative administration. The saving in cataloging and accessioning at the general office is considerable and cannot be ignored. In the ordering of books and supplies there is even a greater economy in having the work done at one place for the entire system, for by this means larger discounts may be obtained through the purchase of large quantities at one time. However, this routine work is not such as affects the initiative of the branch librarian to any great extent, provided certain essentials of this work are left largely to her discretion. These essentials are first, recommendation as to the selection of books and supplies, second, the addition in cataloging of certain subject headings such as may be in her opinion needed in her special branch. In the selection of books the branch librarian may not have the knowledge possessed by the head of an independent library. The former receives less salary and has a narrower experience. But, knowing her own community with its various factories and industries, she should be given the initiative as to what books should go into her special branch. Her recommendations may well be examined at the central office, as the recommendations of the independent librarian are examined by his book committee. This is the more essential in the case of the branch library, as the chief librarian, while he may not know the 40 or 50 different communities of his city, does have a better knowledge of the value of various books and editions. The same argument applies to additional subject headings. In a general book on technology a bibliography of steel works management may be worth a subject heading in a library near the steel mills. The addition of such subject headings and the analysis of special articles or chapters may well be left to the branch librarian, if the headings selected by her are approved by the head of the cataloging department. It follows, therefore, that although a certain part of the routine work must for purposes of economy be done in the central office, yet this centralization does not necessarily lessen the branch librarian's initiative.

In regard to the personnel, it has been found necessary in the larger libraries to conduct training classes for embryo librarians. It is not possible, even if it were desirable, for each

individual branch with its small force to conduct its own school, but the apprentices may be given experience in various branches, and the branch librarian allowed an opportunity to report and recommend as to their appointment. In the case of an undesirable assistant, the branch librarian may have even more opportunity for initiative than the independent librarian, for it is far easier for the former to transfer an assistant from one branch to another than it is for the latter to make an absolute dismissal. The branch librarian should know the efficiency of her various assistants and should be encouraged to report upon them to the chief librarian. If this be done, her initiative as to the personnel of her force does not compare so unfavorably with other librarians and is superior to the privileges many librarians enjoy under city civil service rules.

The reference work is another department which calls for decentralization. Each branch should have its own reference collection. Although it must of necessity be smaller than that of the independent library with its larger building and greater income, yet it should be sufficient to answer most of the questions that are asked. The remaining inquiries call for coöperation. If the information sought cannot be given at the branch, the reader should be referred to the central building or the question should be forwarded to the chief reference librarian for investigation and report. This, however, is not so much a case of centralization as of coöperation, and would be found to a less extent perhaps in our larger libraries.

The rules and regulations for the public must involve some degree of centralization, although even here the initiative of the branch librarian may not be necessarily limited. It is clearly desirable to allow the public to use different branches if they wish. This involves some uniformity as to registration, charging systems, etc. It also implies uniformity as to certain regulations. It will not do to allow persons in one branch to take out 5 books at one time for 3 months, and in another branch a mile away to limit them to one book for 2 weeks. This uniformity does not imply, however, a central registration office. The branch librarian may well be given charge of her own registered list of patrons, thus keeping in closer touch with the people of her community. As the librarian makes recommendations to his board as to changes of rules, so should the branch librarian be encouraged to study and recommend any

amendments to the regulations of her own library. She has the further assurance that any improvement she can propose will benefit not only her special branch, but all the branches of the city. Thus she may be given a great incentive for originality and initiative.

So far, I have attempted to show that the opportunities for initiative of a branch librarian do not necessarily compare unfavorably with those of the independent librarian. While a certain portion of the routine work for purposes of economy must be done in a central office, yet this does not affect necessarily the opportunities in branch work, and this centralization may be even a relief to the individual and thus an advantage to the public. Most of us will not consider that the decrease of routine work lessens our initiative.

Centralization does not mean uniformity along all lines. The individuality of the branch and the branch librarian must be retained. The branch librarian should and must study her community and the conditions in her neighborhood which may affect her branch, and should make recommendations embodying her conclusions. Different neighborhoods have different needs. A duplicate pay collection may be an excellent thing in a residential district and a total failure in Little Hungary. A collection of books in a Fifth Avenue branch on How to live on $500 a year would be absurd. The branch librarian should be given and should feel the responsibility for the success or failure of her branch. She should make recommendations to the administrative officers as to the selection of books, changes of rules, the personnel of her force, and the extension of the library's activities within her neighborhood, as the independent librarian makes his report to his trustees.

How may the initiative and originality of the assistants in a large system of branches be encouraged? It is possible to foster the spirit of coöperation among the branches of a system. Advice and counsel should be given in place of direct orders in so far as may be possible. The military system is not to be commended in library work. It is perfectly feasible to discuss any proposed changes at the meetings of the branch librarians, who should be encouraged to take part in such discussions. The assistants should be urged to recommend at any time possible improvements in the library service, and should feel free to talk over such recommendations informally with

those at the head. If this is done the originality and interest of the assistant will not be lost; the decision of every small point need not be postponed. It is not sufficient to say, the "Work for the work's sake." It is the "Work for the public's sake." You all have heard of the library assistant who exclaimed when interrupted in her routine work by a reader: "If the public would only let us alone, we could get some work done."

Those of us who may be longing for independence should remember that there is no such thing as an absolutely independent position in library work or any other work. Sometimes I think independence is what we think the other fellow has and the other fellow thinks we have. The head of the library has his trustees and the city officials, who, with their civil service rules and their inclination to cut our budgets, can make more trouble than any chief librarian would ever dare to make. No one ever accomplished anything by thinking continually of the limitations in his work and by telling himself that opportunity has knocked and fled, never to return. Opportunities are always with us; it is for us to see how we can make the best use of them.

THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

Edward Edwards a pioneer in the public library movement in England, in his Memoirs of Libraries published in 1859, states, in answer to the question: Is a professional organization of librarians practicable and likely to be useful? "If such an organization (of librarians) could be created upon a solid basis without ostentation, and without attempting to achieve too much, some, at all events, of the difficulties which beset appointments, under circumstances such as have been glanced at, would be put in the way of removal. In proportion as the number of public libraries shall increase and as the public concern in them shall be broadened, both the means and the desirableness of creating a librarians' association will, in all probability, evince themselves. . . But unless an association bring with it increased means of systematic study, and of public evidence of the fruits of study, no result of much worth can be looked for." This quotation is found at the head of some early numbers of *The Library Journal* and expresses the hopes of the leaders in the library profession in America when the American Library Association was formed at Philadelphia in 1876, at the time of the centennial celebration. As a preamble to the constitution the founders adopted the following: "For the purpose of promoting the library interests of the country, and of increasing reciprocity of intelligence and good-will among librarians and all interested in library economy and bibliographical studies, the undersigned form themselves into a body to be known as the American Library Association."

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

As an introduction to this group of articles we include one by Dr. Melvil Dewey, then secretary of the newly formed association, in which he points out lines of usefulness which he sees in the organization. A sketch of Dr. Dewey is in Volume 1 of this series.

The interest manifested in the proposed library co-operation is sufficient to satisfy the most sanguine. Evidence from all sides proves that the time is fully come for something to be done. An editorial note on page 178 of the JOURNAL called attention to this subject, and the Constitution reported by the Board is simply another step in the same direction. The satisfactory organization of the Association should take precedence of every thing else, for individuals are backward in urging their plans when there is no authority to which they can be submitted for consideration. Even when brought forward, they amount to little, whatever may be their real excellence, because of the need of official approval. An equally important service will be rendered by this tribunal in pointing out worthless propositions before time and labor are wasted in trying what has been repeatedly found without value. Here again individuals hesitate to come forward and demonstrate the folly of the crude ideas submitted and zealously supported by those of little actual experience. There are scores of matters already broached, all of them worthy the examination and attention of the Library Association. But until the organization is perfected, and some one has the authority to appoint committees and divide the work, each waits for the other, and while all are anxious to have something done, comparatively few feel at liberty to do any thing. We have had the conference, and it was a success beyond all that its most sanguine friends had hoped. If there were those who doubted the necessity of a library organization, their doubts vanished after those three days of earnest and profitable labor, and there was established

the *American Library Association.* The next thing of importance is agreement on a constitution under which to work, and after due consultation that is now adopted.

The interest had to be developed—of the profession and of the public. The Government Report, the establishment of the JOURNAL, the Conference, the permanent organization, the preparation and adoption of a constitution—all these things have taken time and deserved it, are done and well done. The necessary preliminaries are finished, and we are ready for actual work.

One of the oldest living librarians recently said, in reviewing the year, "Through all coming time 1876 will be looked upon as the most eventful year in the history of libraries—the year in which the librarian fairly claimed and received at the hands of the public his place among the recognized professions." Something of this feeling has spread, not through this country alone, but in nearly all countries a new interest and activity in library matters is noted. It has been the proud fortune of America to lead in this movement, and the best informed of other countries are frank to say that they have much to learn on this side the Atlantic.

The result of this interest is naturally a large number of new ideas and suggestions from those experienced, and from those little versed, in the technicalities of library work. It is no small part of the work of the Association to control this interest and to guide it into profitable channels. For a time much attention must be given to details, and only a librarian appreciates the importance of library details. Most of these, once fairly settled, will require little, if any, more attention, and, when fairly out of the way, the Association will have opportunity to attempt that work which to the public will seem more important and profitable. But we cannot build the house until we have made the bricks, for they are not ready to our hands. The problem before us is briefly this: to make the libraries better—their expenses less. If the average voter cannot be made to understand the importance of improvement, he is very susceptible to arguments in favor of economy, and the proposed work receives the most cordial endorsement of practical men.

As much uniformity as is consistent among the differently constituted libraries is a necessity for the full measure of econ-

omy; the present extravagance is almost entirely in doing things by ones, instead of by thousands, and the possibility of labor-saving in cataloguing and money-saving in supplies is conditional upon the degree of uniformity in methods and appliances. If no two libraries use the same size catalogue card, it will be difficult to devise any system of co-operative cataloguing applicable to all alike, and it will be wholly impossible to make the cards by the hundred thousand, and thus reduce their cost one-half. There are several hundred different blanks and appliances already sent in as contributions to the Bibliothecal Museum. Many of these are of exceeding convenience, and help materially in the satisfactory and economical administration of both large and small libraries. If they could be obtained of the most approved patterns and at the lowest possible cost, it would be desirable to use them in many places where it is *not* desirable for the librarian to spend the amount of money and time necessary to devise and superintend the making of the few that he himself needs. A competent committee on supplies could do some exceedingly valuable work for the Association by carefully comparing the great variety in use, selecting the best models for all needed purposes, reporting them as standards, and then securing, as could easily be done, their manufacture in large quantities, so that they could be distributed to all libraries desiring, at a much lower price than they could otherwise be obtained. The advertising value of such supplies to any book house competing for library trade would induce it to furnish them at a trifling advance on the wholesale cost of manufacture; or should there be objections to this plan, offers have already been made by prominent and responsible parties to make needed library supplies under direction of a committee of the Association, and to hold them in stock subject to the orders of the committee, who may pay for them as fast as distributed to participating libraries. It would thus be possible for a Supply Committee to carry on this work without drawing on the Association for capital or support, and still the whole matter would be under the control of the Association. Without discussing details, it is evident that there is opportunity for a material saving in one considerable item of library expense. The catalogue cards, call slips, special blank books, notices, borrowers' cards, placards (many apply equally to all libraries), ledgers, slip boxes, devices for holding books upright, library

trundles, steps, indicators, check boxes, etc., etc., while costing comparatively little to any one, amount to a very large sum when many libraries or a number of years are considered, for many of the supplies named from their nature require constant replenishing.

The proposed saving should not be confounded with Co-operation in the ordinary sense, which is simply a device for reducing the cost of getting articles from producer to consumer, without paying too much to middlemen. Library supplies are hardly any of them in the ordinary market, but are things made to special order. Such co-operation will conflict little with any established business. In each town some stationer, carpenter, and jack-of-all-trades may miss an occasional job of "puttering up something for the library;" but heretofore it has been about as practicable to make the supplies in quantity for all the libraries as it would have been to make the false teeth for an entire commonwealth from a single mould. Every thing had to be fitted to its special destination. While the field is not large enough to bring in capital and competition so that what is wanted can be secured, like the necessities of life, at a simple living profit above cost, the field is altogether too large to continue the wasteful and unsatisfactory system of each entirely for himself. In addition to the direct saving in money, such a series of standard supplies would assist a young librarian very materially in adopting the best methods, besides tending largely to secure uniformity in other matters. The Supply Committee, if it do vigorous work, can effect a substantial saving in money and patience to all the profession. At the first it will be no little labor, but, once done, the standing committee will have simply to consider actual improvements worthy adoption, and to keep the plan in repair.

Similar foundation work must be done by other competent committees, so that uniformity of some kind may be established in regard to a code of library abbreviations, capitals in cataloguing, preparation of titles; in fact, the foundation will only be laid when the Association has given suitable attention to all these matters, and recommended to its members for uniform use what seems to be the best. Then we can intelligently and with some hope of success enter upon measures for co-operative cataloguing and indexing, and important biblio-

graphical or bibliothecal works. At present the diversity in details is so great, that it is a serious impediment to progress in these more important matters. Then with these details properly disposed of, we shall be ready to grapple directly with the main problem—the education of the masses through the libraries, by securing the best reading for the largest number at the least expense.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

In only two years from the date of organization of the American Library Association, it was possible to see some accomplishment worthy of its aims. Further statement of purpose and aims was necessary in order that increased membership might bring enlarged opportunity for service. A brief editorial in the *Library Journal* expresses this appeal.

In the Centennial year, at the Convention of Librarians held at Philadelphia, a Library Association was formed, which has already proved itself so useful that Great Britain has been moved to hold a similar convention and to found a similar association.

The aim of those who projected the American society was twofold—practical and educational; 1st, to enable librarians to do their present work more easily and at less expense; 2d, to enable some of them to do a higher work than they had yet attempted, and others to perform their highest work better. The first object has been already attained to a considerable extent. Library supplies (cards, shelf-lists, accession-books, book-covers, book-supports, revolving book-shelves, binders, numbers, call slips, and indeed every appliance pertaining specially to a library) can be had from the Supply Department of the Association at very much less than the prices which dealers had found it necessary to demand, and must have continued to demand if the Association had not taken the matter in hand. This has been accomplished by the well-known advantage which co-operation always gives, of having things manufactured in large quantities cheaply, instead of singly and dearly. Moreover, arrangements have been made by which certain parts of library work, instead of being done independently by many libraries, each laboring through the same drudgery, will be done, and done better than ever before, by a central bureau, at little more expense for all than has been hitherto paid by

each. Various other suggestions for saving in time or expense have been made and discussed, and still others will from time to time be brought forward. And particularly rules have been under consideration for some time which will introduce greater uniformity and greater efficiency in cataloguing, a matter which forms a very large item in the cost of all libraries. Most public libraries spend at least twice as much for running expenses as for books; in reducing the cost of the former the Association makes it possible to buy more books or to effect a direct saving to the tax-payers.

The second part of the work laid out for the Association is not less important, and is of more general concern. It is to increase the efficiency of libraries in the education of the people. The value of libraries attached to colleges, to historical and scientific societies, and to other learned bodies, has been long acknowledged, and their methods are tolerably well settled, although there are possibilities of progress even in them which are known only to a few. But it is not so with the libraries for the unlearned. Their value is not universally granted; their methods are yet unsettled; many things are still untried; the libraries themselves are not yet in existence in all the places where they are needed; there is a crowd of doubtful questions which ought to be thoroughly discussed and viewed from every side,—the use and abuse of fiction for instance, and the possibility and best means of elevating the character of the reading; and, moreover, there is a great opportunity for giving important aid in the choice of books. To these questions the Association will address itself; and their consideration cannot fail to be of interest to all who have any care for popular education, for the progress of their fellow-men, and for the safety of their country. This may seem a large phrase; yet if there is any truth settled in political science it is that where suffrage is universal, ignorance must not be general. The two pillars of a republic, without which its fall is inevitable, are morality and intelligence. Our extensive and costly school system is nothing but a perpetual fight against ignorance, waged by the State for its own preservation; but it is a fight which, however perseveringly and successfully it is waged, too often ceases before the victory is won. The necessities of a struggle for existence take children away from school when they have little more than begun their education. We need

institutions to continue the refining, enlightening work. The pulpit, the lyceum, the press, much as they effect, are not enough. They all testify to their need of the assistance of the public library. The schools teach children to read; the teachers and the librarian should (but at present generally do not) teach children how to read and what to read; the library furnishes them the books to read. It introduces them into regions of thought and learning, puts into their life possibilities of mental training and improvement which without it many would not have the slightest chance of reaching. Rich men's sons, and some poor men's sons who have suitable tastes and inclinations, go to college to complete their education; but the vast majority cannot and do not want to go to college. Is their education, therefore, to stop and never get beyond the three R's? It need not, if their town contains a public library, in any way worthy to form a part of that great institution which has been well named of late "The People's University." It is only too evident, however, that public libraries are not yet all they should be; and to develop and improve them is the task to which the Association now addresses itself. How this is to be done, there is not space to set forth here, even if all that is possible could be foreseen. But one thing may be just mentioned. The Association intends to prepare (by means of a committee), and to publish from time to time hand-books of the best reading on various subjects, with short explanatory and critical notes. Experience has amply shown that nothing (except personal influence, which the Association also hopes to foster) tends so much to raise the character of the reading in any community as showing that community what is the best reading. There are plenty of persons who wish to improve themselves if they only knew how; and the Association believes that it is the duty, and that it is within the power of the libraries as a whole to show them how. Single libraries working by themselves find that impossible which all working together can easily accomplish.

One thing is certain, the Association needs the hearty and efficient co-operation of every friend of education throughout the country, and with such co-operation it will achieve wonders. Imagine what could be done by one associate in each town, who, thoroughly interested himself, should set to work to interest others. And he who already feels some attraction towards

a good work of this kind will be much more likely to deepen and increase this interest, and will have much more influence upon others if he feels that he is one of many all working to the same end; if, in short, he belongs to an association. Moreover, by means of reports, circulars, etc., he will then be informed of what is going on in other places, and hear of the best methods and newest ideas.

We ask you then to join, and also to induce all those within your reach—teachers, clergymen, editors, publishers, literary men, and every one interested in educational and political progress—who sympathize in these endeavors to maintain our country's fast-waning pre-eminence in popular education, to join the American Library Association.

How to Join

Send to the Secretary your name (with full post-office address, position, occupation, or any titles or degrees that should appear for identification in a full list of members), and fee for the current year ($2). He will send your official certificate, after which you will be entitled to all privileges of membership.

Privileges

In addition to the usual rights each member will receive from time to time suggestions for work in his own section, reports of experience in other places, and other matter of practical value to any one interested in libraries. In attending annual or other meetings and conventions, members only have the privilege of any reduced rates for railroads, boats, hotels, etc. Chiefly in the rapidly growing Supply Department of the Association, where may be obtained every thing pertaining to a library except the books, members may purchase for themselves or for their libraries all supplies at 10 per cent less than the price to others. The amount of the largest assessment is saved on the first $20 expended, and it is economy for the smallest library to be on the roll, saving the small assessment many times over. Private libraries derive the same advantages.

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS OF WILLIAM HOWARD BRETT

The following is taken from Mr. Brett's address at the Philadelphia Conference of the A.L.A. in 1897. This was the occasion of the coming of age of the association and the president takes the opportunity to survey the past quarter of a century and draws courage for the future from the progress of the past.

The sketch of Mr. Brett found in Volume 1 of this series needs to be supplemented by the statement of his tragic death in August 1918, which cut short his service as librarian of the Cleveland Public Library one week before he would have completed his 34th year there.

The present meeting of the American Library Association has not only that interest which attaches to all meetings of the Associaton, as forming one of those milestones by which it is accustomed to mark its annual progress and gather up and preserve in its published proceedings a record of the work of the year, but derives great additional interest from the fact that this is the twenty-first year from the founding of the Association, the year in which we attain our majority, and that we come together to celebrate that event as is fitting in this beautiful city, rich with historic memories, which we are proud to claim as the birthplace of our Association.

The program as prepared for this meeting appears to be one of unusual fullness, and I shall not detain you from it further than to present briefly to you some of the considerations which were present in the minds of our committee in arranging it.

Meeting under such circumstances of time and place, it is but natural that we should recall the founding of our Association, and trace the steps of its progress not merely for the sake of recalling pleasant recollections, nor that we may congratulate ourselves upon a certain satisfactory measure of accomplishment, but that by considering what has been done we may

better determine what would best be done in the immediate future, and shape our plans thereto, and that, realizing how much has been accomplished with comparatively slender means, we may look forward with courage and confidence upon a greater future.

The American Library Association held its first meeting in the rooms of the Philadelphia Historical Society, where we were gathered together again so pleasantly last evening. There were present 104 members, of whom 13 were women. These represented 16 states and the District of Columbia. The number of libraries represented was almost 100, and included school and college, proprietary, endowed, and public libraries.

The Association was welcomed at its first session by John William Wallace, president of the Society, in an address in which, after cordially greeting them and referring to the circumstances that attended the meeting, he outlined with remarkable prescience those problems which librarans, both individually and in our Association, have since been striving to solve.

The papers read were upon such practical subjects as cataloging, indexing, bibliography, book sizes, copyright, the qualifications of the librarian and his relations to readers, and the still broader subject of the status of the library in the community. Before adjourning the Association effected a permanent organization, elected officers and appointed a committee on finance and one on co-operation; and in naming this last committee it indicated the means of progress and sounded the keynote of success.

The second meeting of the Association was in connection with the English librarians in an international gathering in London, in 1877, which resulted in the formation of the Library Association of the United Kingdom. Since that time meetings have been held almost every year. They have been held at various points from the extreme east to the Pacific coast. The Association has had upon its rolls since its formation over 1500 members, and the present membership is almost 800. It includes within its number library trustees, librarians, and those filling other positions in libraries, and some others, who, though not actively engaged in the work of libraries, are interested in their success. All classes of libraries have continued to be represented. Their essential unity of purpose has been recognized, and the special work of each fairly considered.

The year in which our country celebrated the 100th anniversary of its independence marked a distinct epoch in its history. It began an era of progress in the arts and industries, in literature and education, and it marked also a distinct step forward and the beginning of a new era in the libraries of our country. The progress of American libraries during the quarter of a century dating from a little before the centennial year has consisted first of a wonderful increase both in the number of libraries in the country, and in the volume of books contained in them, and available for public use; and second, and scarcely less important, in an improvement of library methods, and the reduction of library organization and administration to a system.

The report of the United States Commissioner of Education for the year 1876 furnished for the first time statistics of the number of libraries in the country and of the books contained in them, and the successive reports of 1886, 1893, and 1896 enable us to measure their growth. As you all know there were in 1876, or just before, about 12,000,000 volumes in the libraries in the country. There are now over 33,000,000. That is, in 21 years, or a little more, the libraries of our country have increased nearly 200 per cent., have almost trebled in volume. This growth has been due in part to large and generous gifts for the foundation and endowment of libraries, and even more to a wholesome growth of public appreciation of their value, practically expressed in the willingness of our citizens to tax themselves for their support. These two instrumentalities have given to many of our larger cities magnificently equipped libraries in which broad-minded and far-seeing citizens have erected for themselves monuments more enduring than marble. They have dotted the country here and there with smaller memorial libraries, and have largely increased the number of public libraries.

During the same period noteworthy developments and improvements of library methods have been carried forward. Although before the centennial year much good work was being done in many libraries, there was little attempt at mutual helpfulness, and each librarian did that which was right in his own eyes without the opportunity of availing himself of the experience of others. The report of the Commissioner of Education of 1876 gave not only statistics which I have already

mentioned, but also published a series of papers by leaders of the library movement treating of the more important questions of library management, and forming collectively a compendium of the subject which was invaluable to the student of library methods.

The Library Association, with this as a basis, has continued this interchange of opinion, both at its meetings and through the pages of its official publication, the *Library Journal,* and has thus furnished a medium of communication by which the experience of each librarian and the advances and improvements which were made in each library were speedily placed at the service of all. The result of these years of earnest work is that a body of library knowledge has been formulated which is generally accepted. Library architecture, furniture, and appliances have been studied, and the conclusions are so accessible that the architect who chooses to avail himself of them may plan a building which will be pleasant to use, convenient, and economical to administer. Schemes of classification have been devised, comprehensive, yet easy to understand and apply. The principles of cataloging have been studied, and definite rules for its practice prescribed. Formerly, the great catalog was the product of the broad scholarship and assiduous work of a master; a *magnum opus* into which he sometimes put his very life, and which became to him a monument. Now, it simply means trained work according to well-defined rules, producing a certain result; and, speaking broadly, we may say that an adequate catalog is within the reach of every library. Charging systems have been systematized, their principles defined, and the requisites of accuracy and speed measurably attained. Helpful indexes have been devised, and by co-operation placed within the reach of all. Many practical helps to the estimation and selection of books have also been produced. The need of thorough training for the work has been recognized by the establishment of library schools.

I have thus briefly indicated the various branches of knowledge and practice which form the body of library science and art as it exists to-day. The practical result has been a marked increase in the efficiency of the library. Trustees and librarians, upon whom devolves the pleasant task of organizing a new library, to-day need not grope in the dark as would those of 25 years ago. They may accept a plan from the architect

and feel certain that the building, when completed, will be a library building. They can choose intelligently from various plans of shelving and showing books; they can decide upon plans of classification and cataloging, and feel sure of the result; they can select a charging system with the certainty that it will work; and what is of still greater importance, and would better have been placed at the beginning of this category, the trustees may secure at once the services of a competent librarian instead of experimenting with the raw material.

There is no question but that this increased efficiency of library work has secured for libraries a higher place in the public estimation, and has directed the attention of the generous minded to them, and has thus been a powerful factor in promoting their extension and increase.

This great work has been accomplished by generous and intelligent co-operation, and this co-operation has been mainly brought about through the American Library Association, which has been the bond of union and the means of communication. It is not too much to say that during all these years no important advance has been made in library plans, nor any valuable improvement in library methods and appliances, which was not first proposed by a member of the Association and discussed at its meeting, or in the pages of the *Journal*.

This work of devising appliances, improving methods, and perfecting organization, received the attention of those librarians who organized the Association and carried it forward during those earlier years simply because it was the most pressing need. It was dictated to them by the circumstances. They gave their thought, their time, their work, ungrudgingly and unsparingly to the improvement of methods even in the most minor details, not as an end but as a means; building a machine, no detail of which was insignificant, if it made the machine any more perfect; creating an instrument which was to perform a great work. Great as was this task, however, it would be a mistake to suppose that it entirely absorbed the time and thought of the librarians, or that their interest was confined to the work which could be done within the walls of their libraries. From these earlier times, and increasingly to the present, efforts have been made to enlarge the scope of the work of the library, and to extend its beneficent influence outside of the walls which contain it. In the larger places the area of its influence

has been enlarged, and the number of people which it could reach increased by the establishment of branches and delivery stations, doing practically the same work of issuing books as the main library, and being in effect an attempt to take the library to those who cannot conveniently come to it. Travelling libraries bring books temporarily within the reach of such neighborhoods as are without them, with the view not only of supplying an immediate want, but of encouraging the establishment of permanent libraries.

All of this work, however, is simply carrying out the older library idea more fully, broadly, and generously. It brings many more good books within easy reach of many more people than ever before, but apparently leaves the choice of their reading in their own hands. The elements of guidance, supervision, direct instruction, are not apparently provided for. These do, however, enter into modern library work quietly and unobtrusively, but largely. The reader is guided in certain lines by the judgment of those who are forming the library and making it specially full on the lines which seem to them most useful to the particular community, it is limited by their decision as to the fitness of particular books, and influenced also by the catalogs and indexes which are used. More than in any way, however, is the reading of a community moulded for good or for better, by the personal influence of those who have the pleasant duty of meeting those who use our libraries and helping them in the selection of their books. So far as this is done it introduces a new element into library work, making the library no longer a mere reservoir of knowledge, but more distinctly a teaching force. There can be no doubt as to the propriety and value of work in this direction, and no more important question can engage the attention of librarians than the means of doing this work fully, systematically and efficiently.

The future historian of the library movement, if he be disposed to generalization, may possibly characterize, as I have already suggested, the quarter of a century through which we have just passed as the period of organization.

While it is true that the growth of libraries during this period has been great, it is equally true that this is plainly an increasing growth; that the movement is an accelerating one. The growth of the later years is greater than that of earlier ones, and libraries are now increasing in number and in size

more rapidly than ever before. It seems probable that we are entering upon an era of growth which will exceed that of any previous time, and surpass even the hopes of the most sanguine; that in the generalization of the same historian of whom I have spoken, the period upon which we are entering will be known as the era of library extension. This great work we can, as librarians, promote not only by bringing the work of the library to the highest possible state of efficiency, but also by taking all proper means of calling attention to its value, and letting its good work be known.

A notable thing in the growth and development of the library is the spirit in which it has all been done. It seems natural to trace an analogy between human institutions and the individual man. As we recognize in man the triune nature, body, mind and spirit, so in the institution we may see the trinity of material, method and motive. The library has its body of buildings, appliances and books; its directing intelligence in method and organization; and its spirit of good will and helpfulness which calls it into existence and gives it vitality and value. This is the true library spirit. It is this which brings to libraries endowments and noble gifts and a generous public support. It is this which impels men and women to give their time, their thought, their effort, their very selves to the work. And it is only by an appeal to this same spirit in those who use the library that it can do its best work. It is a truism that an institution can only attain its fullest development and do its best work on lines consistent with its own genius. To an institution founded as a library is upon generosity, and carried on in unselfishness, narrowing rules and hampering regulations are as foreign and repugnant as they are ineffective. The free library can only do its best work by trusting the people who use it, by appealing to their honor and unselfishness, by enlisting their sympathy and securing their help in its work.

Our library system thus organized and thus increasing is doing a more definitely educational work, is filling a larger place among those forces which make for uplifting and bettering social conditions. Among the most important of these forces we recognize the school, the church, the journal. These years of growth of our libraries have also been years in which these institutions have been broadening their work. The

school has been applying itself more definitely to the training of its pupils for productive and remunerative occupations, and for the performance of their civic duties. The church seems to be realizing more than ever before how important a part of its mission it is to save men from the evils of this world, to help them in its difficulties, and to increase the happiness and sweetness and joy of living this present life. The spirit and direction of the best journalism, the best authorship, and all the best institutional and individual work, is the same. The library is not only doing its own work in this direction, a work which no other institution can do, but it presents itself as the most effective helper to all other good work.

As the progress and organization of libraries has been accomplished by a close and intelligent co-operation of libraries sharing in the movement, so in the larger work which lies before us we may hope for the greatest results by a recognition of the oneness of purpose of all educational and social work, and a close and cordial co-operation on the part of all engaged in it. The library presents a common meeting ground and can do much to bring about such a co-operation.

May I venture to take a moment or two more of your time to sum up briefly what I have already said, and in so doing to indicate what appears to be the present status of the library movement? The work of the past 25 years has effected a systematic library organization which, while it will be still further perfected and improved, leaves librarians much freer than formerly for the further extension and broader aspects of the library work. The tendency seems definitely towards freer methods, and the greatest hope for the usefulness of the library lies in that direction. We may hope for, and we may do much to promote a great additional increase of libraries. We are doing tentatively in various directions much definitely educational work, and in this as in all of the broader work which lies before the library in the future the road to success lies through cooperation, keeping our own organization compact and effective, and lining up together and uniting the efforts of all the forces which make for civilization.

A HEADQUARTERS FOR OUR ASSOCIATION

A plan for enlargement of scope and for increased usefulness of the A.L.A. is here outlined by Mr. George Iles. In the twenty years since this was published great strides have been made but the association has not accomplished all he then visualized for it.

Mr. Iles was born at Gibraltar in 1852. He is the author of several books, among them "Flame, electricity and the camera." He was editor with R. R. Bowker of the Readers' Guide on Economic, Social and Political Science; with Mrs. A. C. Leypoldt, of A List of Books for Girls and Women and Their Clubs, and a Bibliography of Fine Art. He gave $10,000 to the A.L.A. for the cost of the Guide to American History. One of his great interests has been in trustworthy "appraisal of literature."

For years it has been plain that the work of this Association could be broadened and bettered if it had a headquarters at a leading center of library work. There might be gathered everything to inform the founder or the architect of a library, everything to aid a librarian in choosing books wisely, in making them attractive to his whole public, from the child in the nursery to its grandfather in the arm chair. Every experiment of assured success might here be recorded for the behoof of librarians everywhere, so that the labors of all might come to the level of the best. The systematic selection and criticism of literature can hardly be accomplished anywhere but at a headquarters, with the whole country in its purview as a source of contributors, with all America as a market for its guide posts. At that central watch tower should be alert eyes to discern how best to co-ordinate the vast and diverse library interests of the nation, how literature could do all the people the utmost possible good. The beginnings for such an institution are with us to-day. At Albany, in the New York State Library, is a collection of plans and elevations of library build-

ings, together with shelves filled with volumes of library legislation, bibliographical aids and the like. Such a collection kept up to date at a headquarters would have the utmost utility. At the Boston Athenæum Library our Publishing Board has rooms for the issue of cards, pamphlets and books of inestimable value to librarians. The demand for these publications would undoubtedly increase were this agency removed to the suggested central bureau.

That bureau should first concern itself with the housing of libraries. Our architects of old time were wont to begin with an ornamental shell, and dispose the interior to fit that shell; their designs, therefore, are more profitable for warning than for instruction. Our best modern homes for books have been planned as much by librarians as by architects. Their joint purpose has been to provide rooms of such form and size as best accommodate the various departments of a library, and so group these as to promote the convenience of the public and the efficiency of the staff. This done, walls and roof enwrap and complete a structure executed as handsomely as the funds allow. To illustrate such practice there should be collected plans and elevations of central and branch libraries in cities, of village, town and college libraries; all these graded, with full details of heating, lighting, ventilation, systems of book carriage and telephony. Wherever possible there should be recorded a just criticism of these buildings in the light of experience, that there may be no needless repetition of error or waste. Some of our recent structures include lecture halls, museum annexes, dark rooms for photography; these and similar features should have attention. All to be accompanied by exhibits of furniture, equipment and appliances of good types, not omitting the simple cases for travelling and school libraries. The cost of each item in this array should always appear. The publications of our Association might well comprise illustrations and descriptions chosen from this department.

Our headquarters, next after housing, might consider administration. First should be collected the laws affecting public libraries, creating state libraries, state library commissions, and the like, with their reports. Beside these might be placed bound volumes of the leading library journals of the world. Next might stand the works which set forth the chief methods of classification and cataloging, to be illustrated in the library

itself. Then should come bibliographical aids of all kinds, whether in card or book form; together with important trade catalogs, both American and foreign; indexes to publications of the United States and of state governments, indexes to periodicals, and a complete set of the title-cards now being issued by the Library of Congress. Here also should be found such lists as are issued by the Boston Public Library in special fields of research. In print or manuscript should be presented methods of administration illustrated in detail, with particulars regarding organization, staffs, salaries and the duties of employees. To these should be added statistics of expenses of various typical libraries, with results in circulation, and a statement, wherever it can be had, as to what departments stand highest in public regard and in evident fruitfulness. It would be helpful to include here detailed memoranda of the cost of printing and binding in standard styles. Here, too, should be records of the libraries richest in engineering or other special literature, with such of their catalogs as may be obtained in book form. To solicit loans from such libraries, whether public or private, on reasonable conditions, might be one of the functions of the bureau. The gist of all this information might well be embodied by our Publishing Board in a hand-book, to be reissued at intervals in revised form.

Work on many other helpful lines might well proceed at the proposed headquarters. There should center the appraisement of books so worthily initiated for us by Mr. J. N. Larned in his "Literature of American history." That work and its supplement, I am glad to say, are to be continued by our Publishing Board in a series of its card issues. Nothing in Mr. Larned's Guide has proved more useful than Prof. Channing's lists of books suitable for school, town and working libraries. Most of our libraries are small, and it is just such brief selections by scholars of authority that are in the largest request. In extending the work of appraisement the first task at headquarters would be to learn what fields may next be entered most acceptably. As far as I can ascertain, fiction, the useful arts, and the "nature-books," are what might be taken up with most benefit. Effectively to carry out appraisement there should be an unceasing canvass for competent and trustworthy critics, chiefly to be found in universities, on the staffs of leading journals, or contributing to the organs of learned

societies, such as the *Physical Review*. Each appraisement of a branch of literature should be directed by an editor-in-chief careful to keep the scope of selections well in hand, and sedulous that notes be given such form as librarians desire. Many of us, I feel sure, would be glad to see such notes brief enough to be printed upon catalog cards. Reviews of indispensable value appear in such journals as *Nature* of London, the *Political Science Quarterly* of New York; these should be filed in order to check and supplement the notes received by an editor from his contributors. A review may often be quoted or condensed to serve quite as well as a specially written note. For some years Mr. W. Dawson Johnston, of the Library of Congress, has edited our series of catalog cards for current books on English history, with annotations. He has suggested to our Publishing Board plans for a periodical review of current literature in all fields, which would enlist a corps of competent critics. Were the financial outlook for such an enterprise well assured, it might soon see the light of day.

The training of men and women for tasks of criticism at a headquarters has happily begun. During the academic year just closed the State Library School at Albany gave courses in book selection and annotation directed by Mrs. Salome Cutler Fairchild. Her aim was to cultivate the judgment of book values, the adaptation of books to various types of libraries and of readers. The characteristics of good writing were kept constantly in mind—that an author's knowledge should be comprehensive and at first hand, that he should be judicial in spirit, and treat his theme with proportion, conciseness and clearness. Each student was required to read with care a selection from recent literature and write notes thereon; these notes were then compared with the reviews of standard periodicals. These periodicals, in turn, were studied with a view to ascertaining their merits and faults. Cards of appraisement prepared at the school are pasted into books at the Cleveland Public Library and at several small libraries. Another branch of work at Albany has an important suggestion for our headquarters—systematic attention to the journals, magazines and reports which supplement books and bring their chapters down to date. Literature, especially in the field of science, is more and more taking the shape of monthly, weekly, or even daily contributions to the press. To keep track of all these might be one

of the most useful functions of our central bureau. In all this work it is desirable and probable that our British cousins across the Atlantic might join hands with us. After all, much the larger part of the literature with which we deal is either written in English or translated into that tongue. Why should not the whole English-speaking world co-operate to give its great literature the utmost availability and acceptance?

Throughout the Union our leading libraries are constantly publishing lists for young folk, selections in biography, travel, and so on. As a rule the titles are drawn solely from the issuing library. All such aids could be better executed at a headquarters bringing into alliance many scattered workers, and dealing with the whole of literature instead of with only a part. Much duplication of toil would thus come to an end, and the work done would be of improved quality. At St. Louis next year will be published the "A. L. A. catalog" of books, about eight thousand in number, deemed most suitable for small libraries. To reissue this catalog from time to time, revised and enlarged, would be a fitting task for our central bureau, enlisting the best available advisers in America. Only about one-fourth of our libraries have as many as ten thousand volumes on their shelves; plainly, such a catalog will aid a public much larger than that served by any of the elaborate guides we may be able to prepare.

In 1879 Mr. S. S. Green of Worcester, Massachusetts, began his great work of binding together the public library and the public school. All that has followed from his labors in its salient features should be presented at our headquarters, for it is only in boyhood and girlhood that the reading habit can be formed and trained. A remarkable phase of adult education which continues the work of the public school and makes its home there is conducted in New York as its free lecture system. A standing rule with its supervisor, Dr. H. M. Leipziger is that the lecturers shall mention such books as most helpfully treat the topics of the platform. Many of his courses develop consecutively, evening by evening, such a theme in science as heat or light, or, in literature, the chief poets of the nineteenth century. For every such series a printed syllabus recommends well chosen books. Dr. Leipziger has furthermore begun the service of "platform libraries." Last winter at one of his lecture halls a series of discourses was given on

applied electricity. No fewer than two hundred copies of a standard text-book on electrictiy were there lent *gratis* or sold at cost to all comers. In Philadelphia is the office of the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching. The syllabi published by this society deserve the widest possible circulation. Take, as an example, the syllabus of six lectures on Florentine history delivered by Mr. W. Hudson Shaw, of Oxford. It offers fifty titles of notable books on the themes of the lectures; the thirty pages which follow are an admirable introduction to the study of Dante, Giotto, Cimabue, the Medici, Savonarola, Machiavelli, and Michelangelo. All such syllabi as these might well be filed at our headquarters, and there, too, should be recorded the most effective modes of organizing lecture courses, partnered with the dissemination of good literature.

These courses are to-day as gladly heard in the country as in the city, and their circuits have much the economy of the travelling libraries which follow up and strengthen their work. Four years ago Montreal, with aid from New York, established a course of free lectures which last winter went the round of as many as fifty-one towns, villages, mining and lumbering camps throughout the Dominion. Prof. D. P. Penhallow, who is at the helm, conducts affairs much as if he had charge of a circle of travelling libraries. In his central depository he keeps instead of books the slides and manuscripts of his lectures; the whole store is in active movement from the beginning to the end of a season. Each community gets such lectures as it wants, borrowing instead of having to buy the outfits, at the sole outlay of carriage on small boxes from Montreal and back again. This system has distinctly created a demand for books treating the themes of its lectures. Wisconsin has a lesson as worthy to be placed on record at headquarters as that of Canada. Her farmers are receiving instruction in agricultural and dairy science from a round of lectures as well illustrated as those familiar to city audiences. In all such work a door opens for the circulation of good books. Nowhere in the Union are travelling libraries more worthy of praise than in Wisconsin.

Thus in city and country, education to-day so far from ending with the school bench only begins there; its continuance through all the years of life, a source as much of joy as of

gain, largely turns on good reading. Hence our central bureau should note every new partnership of the public library with schools of art, with trade schools, with colleges of science. Many an isolated student in a parish of Louisiana, or Quebec, or elsewhere, wants books and knows not where to find them. For every such inquirer there should be at our headquarters prompt and judicious aid. What better can we do than rear a continental switch-board to bring together the seeker and the knower, no matter how far apart they may be?

Last month it was my privilege to see the work of the Training School for Children's Librarians at Pittsburgh, which has just completed its second year of activity. At our headquarters there should be not only circulars describing its courses, but a pamphlet, for broadcast distribution, setting forth the hints that these courses have for parents everywhere. To adapt reading to the seasons of the circling year, to follow the procession of the flowers from the blood root in May to the aster and goldenrod of October; to awaken interest in the men and women who have made famous one's city and state; to prospect with books of art or science, travel or business, history or romance; until a young reader's bent is discovered; to ally story-telling, visits to museums and picture galleries with the printed page, to form home libraries and clubs, is to make literature grapple with the mind and heart of boys and girls as it never grappled before. Surely the address and patience of it all deserves an audience as wide as the nation. The Library School at Albany, first and chief of its class, has, in the same way, a story to tell which at our headquarters might supplement its formal prospectuses and reports. A pamphlet which might cost but a dime would give everybody who is forming a home library invaluable hints for the choice, the classification and cataloging of books and periodicals, the best ordering of the notes which accumulate under the hand of the student or scholar. Of course, at our headquarters the publications of all library schools should be gathered for reference, including the programs of the summer schools conducted at Amherst, Massachusetts, and elsewhere. I would like to see every large public library in America conducting summer classes for the behoof of libraries near by. There are thousands of small libraries throughout America, in schools, in villages and towns, which would be greatly bettered

if their librarians attended a library school even for a single month. It is becoming the practice for the owners of large private libraries to call in professional classifiers and catalogers, indicating another service our headquarters could render.

In this tentative survey, which seeks to bring out the opinions of this Association as to what its headquarters should be and do, we may, perhaps, consider where it should arise. Plainly, it might with most advantage be placed where geographical claims have had due weight, as well as those which turn upon proximity to great editorial and publishing centers. If in the same city and its neighborhood, visitors could examine libraries of various types, all good of their kind, so much the better. It is of vital importance that this headquarters should be united with a great library whose books and periodicals could be used by the staff, and where the best administration would be exemplified. From its shelves loans might be available of books not fiction, of plans, photographic slides, and the like, for all libraries of approved standard, extending to the Union the service which the State Library at Albany now performs for New York. Affiliated with the headquarters, and participating in its work, there might with great advantage be conducted a library school, mainly directed to the higher branches of study and practice, and incidentally serving as a training ground for the staff of the central bureau.

A word may be admissible as to the cost of creating and maintaining the institution proposed. Much would depend upon the extent to which it carried on its most expensive task, appraisement. Basing an estimate on the sales thus far of the Larned Guide, I should say that the net loss in publishing similar aids would vary from three to five dollars for each annotated title. With subjects comparatively popular this loss might sink below three dollars; and as our libraries grow in number and strength all such losses would proportionately diminish. A million dollars would provide a suitable site, building and equipment, and would leave for endowment a sum which would greatly lift the efficiency of our libraries as a whole, and add incalculably to the good that the printed word would do in America and the world. The man or men to give this large gift would undoubtedly assure its success by adopting a constitution so wise, and by appointing trustees of such ability and character, as to shed new lustre on the work and aims of us all.

AMERICAN LIBRARY INSTITUTE

This outgrowth of the American Library Association is indicative of the desire for serious discussion of the vital needs of the profession. Its organization and object are made clear in the following editorial summary from *Public Libraries* (Chicago).

The much-discussed Library academy has after mature consideration completed its organization, adopted its constitution, and is about to announce its first list of 70 fellows. After consideration at St. Louis and Portland [1905], the A.L.A. by unanimous vote created the proposed library senate under the name American library institute. The resolutions of council and A.L.A. were as follows:

Resolved: That the members of the council present approve the plan submitted by the Library academy committee to establish an American library institute to consist of 100 persons chosen from English-speaking America as likely to contribute most to library progress by conference together, and recommend that A.L.A. take direct action by passing the following.

Resolved: That the ex-presidents of the A.L.A. be elected the first members of this institute, with power to add to their number, to organize and adopt needed rules, provided that all ex-presidents and members for each current year of the executive board and council of the A.L.A. shall have seats in all meetings of the institute.

The first institute board elected was: Melvil Dewey, president; F. M. Crunden; J. H. Canfield; J. C. Dana; and F. P. Hill; H. J. Carr, secretary.

The sole standard is ability to help solve the large library problems. No one has a claim to membership because he lives in a section having no fellow or occupies a position of prominence. The man or woman who in the judgment of the institute can be most helpful in its deliberations is to be chosen for each vacancy.

The board has voted to leave 30 vacancies. The result of the ballots already taken is the election of 44 fellows including the 15 ex-presidents. The board meets in Atlantic City, March

10, to make up its nominations for the 26 vacancies and lay out the program for the July meeting with the A.L.A.

There are no honorary members. Besides the regularly elected fellows, four classes have seats in all institute meetings:

1. All ex-presidents of the A.L.A.
2. Members of the A.L.A. executive board.
3. Members of the A.L.A. council.
4. Foreign or corresponding members elected within five years.

Foreign members who take no active interest in the work are dropped out after each five-year revision, thus eliminating "dead wood."

Election of new fellows is so important as to results, and is the assignment of an honor which will justly be so much coveted by every librarian, that the board is required when submitting its nominations to give a summary of reasons for the selection of each candidate. The vote is by every fellow in writing and strictly confidential, and no one can become a fellow till three-fourths of all the other fellows have expressed deliberate judgment that his name should be added to this honor roll of the library senate.

While not required by constitution, it is understood that one of the institute meetings will be held in connection with the A.L.A. and that at least one other shall be called at a time and place where there will be more ample opportunity for consideration of large questions of librarianship than is afforded by any of the present library meetings.

The dues for the full ten-year term are $10, but those elected for short terms or to fill vacancies will pay only pro rata.

One unusual provision makes it possible to determine exactly who voted for or against any measure at any meeting. Another leaves small meetings entire freedom to discuss and express opinions, but these will be the opinions of those present and not of the institute unless they have been formally submitted to all the fellows.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

The distinctive position which the Library of Congress now holds as the real national library of the United States gives it a place in this survey of library organizations. Its long years of restricted usefulness and the activities of those striving to make it take its rightful place, form an interesting history.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, OR NATIONAL LIBRARY

No one is better fitted to recount this history than Mr. Ainsworth Rand Spofford, who was born in 1825 at Gilmanton, N.H. He came to this library as assistant librarian in 1861 and became librarian in 1864, holding the position for thirty-three years. His fund of information and his faculty for locating it were both remarkable. He gave up his position as chief librarian in 1897, after the building for which he had striven was completed, and was honored as librarian emeritus till his death in 1908. He served as councilor of the American Library Association from 1892 to 1895.

The Library of Congress had its origin in the wants of our National Legislature for books and information. Its establishment, like that of some of the government libraries of other countries, was almost co-eval with the existence of the Government in a permanent form, the origin of the Library of Congress dating from the year 1800, about the time of the establishment of the seat of Government at Washington.

The Continental Congress, assembled at Philadelphia during the period of the Revolution, represented a government consisting of a mere league of colonies, without central power or authority; and it was dependent for library aid upon the chance researches of its members, and the gratuitous use of books tendered them by the Library Company of Philadelphia. Thus it formed no library of its own, and after the adoption of the Constitution in 1789, while the controverted question of the ultimate seat of government remained unsettled, there was little motive to enter upon the collection of a permanent library.

The first appropriation made by Congress for the purchase of books was on the 24th of April, 1800, in the fifth section of "An act to make further provision for the removal and accommodation of the government of the United States." This act appropriated the sum of $5,000 "for the purchase of such

books as may be necessary for the use of Congress at the said city of Washington, and for fitting up a suitable apartment for containing them, and placing them therein." The selection of books was devolved upon a joint committee of both Houses of Congress, to be appointed for that purpose. And the statute provided:

> That said books shall be placed in one suitable apartment in the Capitol in the said city, for the use of both Houses of Congress, and the members thereof.

Foundation and History of the Library

Congress met in October, 1800, at the city of Washington, for the first time. In the unfinished condition of the original Capitol, the two Houses, with the Supreme Court, were all crowded into the north wing of the new building, and little was done for the accommodation of the nascent Library of Congress. As the next session, which convened under the presidency of Thomas Jefferson, in December, 1801, that officer appears to have taken an earnest interest in the library, and, at his suggestion a statement was made, on the first day of the session, respecting the books and maps purchased by the joint committee of Congress. A special committee was appointed at this session on the part of both Houses to take into consideration the care of the books, and to make a report respecting the future arrangement of the same. This report, made to the House by John Randolph, of Virginia, December 21, 1801, formed the basis of "An act concerning the library for the use of both Houses of Congress," which was the first systematic statute organizing the Library of Congress, and which still continues substantially in force.

This act of organization, approved January 26, 1802, located the Library of Congress in the room which had been occupied by the House of Representatives. It empowered the President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House to establish regulations for the library. It created the office of Librarian, and vested his appointment in the President of the United States, required him to give bond for the safe keeping of the library and the faithful discharge of his trust. It further restricted the taking of books from the Library of Congress to the members of the Senate and the House of Representatives, together with the President and Vice-President of the United States.

This regulation was subsequently extended so as to invest with the privilege of drawing books from the Library of Congress the heads of Departments, the judges, reporter, and clerk of the Supreme Court and of the Court of Claims; the Solicitor of the Treasury; the disbursing agent of the library; the Solicitor-General and Assistant Attorneys-General; the Secretary of the Senate, and the Clerk of the House of Representatives; the Chaplains of both Houses of Congress, the members of the Diplomatic Corps, and the Secretary and Regents of the Smithsonian Institution resident in Washington.

The disbursement of funds for the purchase of books is under the direction of a joint committee of both Houses of Congress on the Library, consisting of three Senators and three representatives, who also have power to make all regulations not inconsistent with law in relation to the Library of Congress, or either of its departments.

In the early years of the library there was little occasion for official work with a view to its wider usefulness; and the care of the few books accumulated (which amounted only to 3,000 volumes up to the year 1814) involved but little time or trouble. Hence, the earliest librarian placed in charge of the books was, in the case of each Congress, the Clerk of the House of Representatives for the time being, who employed an assistant to take the immediate care of the books. The annual appropriation for the purchase of books during these early years was only $1,000.

On the 25th of August, 1814, the Capitol was burned by the British army, which invaded and held possession of Washington for a single day, and the Library of Congress was entirely consumed with it. During the following month, Ex-President Jefferson, then living in retirement at Monticello, and overtaken by pecuniary embarrassment, tendered to Congress, through the Committee on the Library, his private collection of books, as the basis for a new Congressional Library. The offer was to furnish the books (numbering about 6,700 volumes, of which a manuscript catalogue was submitted) at cost, and to receive in payment the bonds of the United States, or such payment as might be "made convenient to the public." This proposition was favorably reported from the committees in both Houses of Congress, but excited earnest debate and opposition. The final vote in the House upon the passage of

the bill authorizing the purchase, at the price of $23,950 was 81 yeas and 71 nays.

On the 21st of March, 1815, Mr. George Watterson was appointed Librarian of Congress by President Madison, and a room in the building temporarily occupied by Congress was appropriated for the reception of the Jefferson library. A catalogue of the collection was printed the same year (1815) in a thin quarto of 210 pages, which is little more than a rough finding-list of an imperfect character. It is noteworthy that on the title page of this volume the collection is styled "The Library of the United States," instead of the Library of Congress, which latter designation has since been generally employed.

At the next session of Congress, the library was removed from this temporary building (which was the Post-Office Department of that day) to the brick edifice on Capitol Hill which had been erected as a temporary home for Congress, until the Capitol should be rebuilt upon the old site. The annual appropriation for the purchase of books was raised to $2,000 a year in 1818. This continued until 1824, when the sum of $5,000 was appropriated; and the same amount continued the average annual appropriation for twenty or thirty years thereafter. The annual accessions of books under this modest appropriation were not great, although the selections were generally judicious, and resulted in bringing together a library formed with a view to the highest utility, and with some general unity of plan. In the year 1824, the library was finally removed to the central Capitol building, which had been completed, where an apartment 92 feet in length by 32 feet in width (still occupied as the central library hall) was fitted up to receive the books.

There the library continued to grow, slowly but surely, until it had accumulated, by the year 1851, 55,000 volumes of books. On the 24th of December of that year the calamity of a second fire overtook the Library of Congress. A defective flue, which had been neglected, and was surrounded with wooden material, communicated the flames to the adjoining shelving, and the entire library, then, as now, occupying the western front of the Capitol, was soon wrapped in flames. The fire occurring in the night, its extinction was attended with great delay, so that only 20,000 volumes were saved from the flames. These, however, embraced the more valuable portion of the library at that time, including the whole of the department of jurisprudence, American history

and biography, and political science. But the important divisions of geography, voyages and travels, English and European history, fine arts, natural history, poetry, the drama, &c., were entirely destroyed.

Starting anew in 1852 with the little nucleus of 20,000 volumes, the Library of Congress soon arose from its ashes, and has since continued to grow in a greatly accelerated ratio. The Congress of that day took a wise and liberal view of the situation, and appropriated at the same session the sum of $72,500 for the reconstruction of the library rooms, and $75,000 additional for the immediate purchase of books. The library hall, under the superintendence of Thomas U. Walter, esq., Architect of the Capitol, was rebuilt in fire proof material, the walls, ceiling, and shelves being constructed of solid iron finished in highly decorated style.

The Library of Congress thus furnished the first example of an interior constructed wholly of iron in any public building in America.

The liberal appropriation made by Congress for books soon began to show its fruits in the acquisition of multitudes of volumes of the best literature in all departments; and many expensive art publications, sets of periodicals, and valuable and costly works in natural history, architecture, and other sciences were added to its stores. By the year 1860 the library had grown to about 75,000 volumes.

Soon after the outbreak of the civil war in 1861 the regular appropriation for the purchase of books was increased from $7,000 to $10,000 per annum, the great cost of imported books rendering it very difficult to keep up with the current literature of value and to continue to supplement the deficiencies of the collection within the limits of the former meagre appropriation.

The Smithsonian Library

In the year 1866, the Library of Congress received a most important accession in the transfer to its shelves of the whole collection of books gathered by the Smithsonian Institution, and representing twenty years' accumulation since its establishment. This collection was a most valuable complement to the library already gathered at the Capitol, being well supplied with books in the natural and exact sciences, and quite unique in the multitude of publications of learned societies in all parts

of the world and in nearly all the modern languages. With this large addition (numbering nearly 40,000 volumes) the Library of Congress became at once the most extensive and valuable repository of material for the wants of scholars which was to be found in the United States. By the terms of transfer of the Smithsonian Library, Congress became its custodian during such time as the Regents of the Smithsonian Institution should continue the deposit, it being stipulated that the expense of binding and cataloguing of all books should be defrayed by Congress in return for this valuable and annually increasing addition to its stores. This arrangement, while it relieves the funds of the Smithsonian Institution from an annual charge in maintaining a library, secures to the National Library an invaluable scientific department without material cost; and the deposit, supplying as it does a much larger library of use and reference to the scholars of the country than is to be found in any one body elsewhere, is likely to be a permanent one.

The Force Library

In the following year (1867) Congress became the purchaser of a very extensive historical library, formed by the late Peter Force, of Washington. This collection represented nearly fifty years of assiduous accumulation by a specialist devoted to the collection of books, pamphlets, periodicals, maps, manuscripts, &c., relating to the colonization and history of the United States. This purchase, which was effected at the price of $100,000, included, besides nearly 60,000 articles (or titles) in books, pamphlets, and manuscripts, the entire unpublished materials of the Documentary History of the United States, a work to which Mr. Force had dedicated his life, and nine folio volumes of which, embracing a portion only of the history of the revolutionary period, had been published. This wise and timely purchase saved from dispersion one of the most valuable libraries ever gathered by a single hand, and has treasured up in a national fire proof repository multitudes of original political and military papers and historical documents, which are unique, and throw much light upon our revolutionary history, as well as upon that of subsequent periods.

By the accessions of succeeding years, the department of American history has been still further enriched by assiduous care in selecting from catalogues at home and abroad, and pur-

chasing at every important auction sale whatever works were not already in the Library of Congress illustrative of the discovery, settlement, history, topography, natural history, and politics of America.

The Law Library

The law department of the Library of Congress was constituted by act of July 14, 1832. Prior to that time the whole collection had been kept together; but the wants and convenience of the justices of the Supreme Court of the United States would, it was found, be greatly promoted by removing the department of jurisprudence into a separate room more conveniently accessible to the court and conference rooms of that tribunal. By the same act the Librarian of Congress was required to take charge of the law library, which was made a part of the Library of Congress subject to the same regulations as the general library, except that the justices of the Supreme Court were empowered to make such rules for the use of the same by themselves and the attorneys and counsellors of said court during its sessions as they should deem proper. The annual appropriation for the purchase of law books was fixed at $1,000, and a special sum of $5,000 was twice appropriated to enrich the law department, which, at the time it was set apart, consisted of only 2,011 volumes. From 1850 to the present time the annual sum appropriated for law books has been $2,000. The law library was first placed in a room adjacent to the main collection, on the same floor. Removed in 1848 to the floor underneath, near what was then the Supreme Court room, it was finally lodged in the Supreme Court room itself in December, 1860, the court having been transferred to the former Senate chamber on the upper floor.

The Law Library of Congress is rich in the English and American reports, of which it possesses full sets, many of them being in duplicate. In civil law it contains all the leading works, and many of the more obscure collateral treatises. In the statue law of the several States, and of the chief foreign nations of the globe, it is well equipped; its collection of treatises in every department of the common law and miscellaneous law literature, both in English and French, is large, though far from complete; while its collection of sets of all important law periodicals, whether English, French, or American, surpasses

that of any other library in the United States. It now numbers upwards of 35,000 volumes, exclusive of works on the law of nations and nature, and the journals and documents of legislative bodies, which form a part of the general Library of Congress.

Extent and Character of the Collections

It may be said that the central idea of a library for the use of a legislative body should be completeness in the two departments of jurisprudence and political science. Yet a library adequately contributing to the enlightenment of the legislators of a nation must necessarily embrace much more than this. There is, in fact, no department of science or literature which may not require at any moment to be drawn upon to lend its aid. Further than this, as the Library of Congress is also freely open for the use and reference of the much larger public, resident or temporarily sojourning at the seat of Government, it must inevitably, by the mere law of growth, become sooner or later a universal library, in which no department shall be neglected. While, therefore, the importance of rendering it approximately complete in books relating to law and government has been kept steadily in view, it has also been assiduously enriched in other directions. Its accumulation of authorities in English and European history and biography is especially extensive. Its collection of periodicals is very rich, and there are few English or American reviews or magazines of any note of which complete sets are not to be found upon its shelves. An admirable selection of the more important literary and scientific periodicals published in France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, and other countries of Europe, is also to be found here.

As the library of the American people, supported and constantly enlarged by taxation, it is eminently fitting that this library should not only be freely accessible to the whole people, but that it should furnish the fullest possible stores of information in every department of human knowledge. While, therefore, more particular attention has been devoted to rendering the library complete in jurisprudence, history, and Americana, there is no department which has been neglected in its formation; and it is, accordingly, becoming measurably complete in many directions which, were it merely the Library of Congress

and for the sole use of a legislative body, would not receive special attention. As one example, it may be stated that this library contains much the largest collection of the county and town histories of Great Britain and of genealogical works, to be found in America.

The present numerical extent of the Library of Congress may be summed up in saying that it contains 300,000 volumes, besides about 60,000 pamphlets. But this estimate by enumeration, although commonly the first item asked for, is very far from constituting a practical test of the value of any library. *Non multa, sed multum* applies with strict pertinence to the intellectual wealth stored within the alcoves of a great library. And with regard to the careful selection and winnowing of books, so that we may be sure to have the best on any given subject, no matter what other collection contains the most, it may be said that it has been the steady aim to secure for the Library of Congress the most comprehensive materials which can be contributed to the enlightenment of readers upon every theme that interests men. Further than this, suggestions of books wanting in the collection have been welcomed from all quarters, and whenever found worthy of incorporation in the library, they have been procured.

The Copyright Department

It remains to consider, briefly, one distinctive field of the operations of the Library of Congress, namely, its copyright accessions. By an act of Congress approved July 8, 1870, the entire registry of copyrights within the United States, which was previously scattered all over the country in the offices of the clerks of the United States district courts, has been transferred to the office of the Librarian of Congress. The reasons for this step were threefold: 1. To secure the advantage of one central office at the seat of government for keeping all the records relating to copyrights, so that any fact regarding literary property can be learned by a single inquiry at Washington. 2. This transfer of copyright business to the office of the Librarian of Congress adds to the registration of all original publications the requirement of a deposit of each publication entered, in order to perfect the copyright. This secures to the library of the government an approximately complete representation of the product of

the American mind in every department of printed matter. The resulting advantage to authors and students of being certain of finding all the books which the country has produced in any given department is incalculable. 3. The pecuniary fees for the record of copyrights are now paid directly into the treasury, instead of being absorbed, as formerly, by the clerical expenses in the offices of the district clerks.

The average number of copyright entries is not far from 12,000 per annum. As two copies of each publication are required to be deposited in the library as a condition of perfecting copyright, the annual receipts under this head amount to nearly 25,000 articles. Of this large number, however, one-half are duplicates, while a very large share are not books, but musical compositions, engravings, chromos, photographs, prints, maps, dramatic compositions, and periodicals. Yet there is, even in the accumulation of what some critics might pronounce trash, an element of value which will receive increasing illustration in the future. By the constant deposit of copyright engravings, photographs, wood-cuts, chromos, and other objects of art, the library must in time accumulate a large and attractive gallery of the fine arts, richly worthy of attention as representing the condition and progress of the arts of design at different periods in the United States.

By the required deposit, also as a condition of the copyright, of every book and periodical on which an exclusive privilege is claimed, there will be gathered in a permanent fire proof repository the means of tracing the history and progress of each department of science or literature in this country. As a single example of this, consider how great a benefit it must be for those who are interested in the profession of education to be secure of finding in a national library a complete series of school books produced in all parts of the United States for the period of half a century. What seems trash to us to-day may come to-morrow to have a wholly unsuspected value; while that which is worthless to one reader may contribute a very solid satisfaction to another.

There should be in every nation one great library, and that the property of the whole people, which shall be inclusive, not exclusive, in its character; which shall include

not a selection merely, but all the productions of the intellect of the country, year by year, as they appear from the press. Thus only will our National Library be fitly representative of the country; thus only will it discharge its function as the custodian and transmitter to future generations of the whole product of the American press. No one who is familiar with the tendency to disappear, or the rapid consumption, so to speak, which overtakes so large a portion of the books that are issued; no one who has sought in vain for a coveted volume, which has become almost lost to the world from the small number of copies printed, and the swift destruction through the accidents of time, can fail to appreciate the value of a collection thus truly complete and national.

THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS AS A NATIONAL LIBRARY

The tremendous field open to the Library of Congress, the needs for library service unmet by any other institution, and the organization by which the national library attempts to fulfil its obligations are all most effectively set forth by the present librarian, Dr. Herbert Putnam, in an address given at the Portland conference of the A.L.A. in 1905. A sketch of Dr. Putnam will be found in Volume 3.

I have tampered with my title. The one assigned was "The Library of Congress and what it stands for as our National Library." As it now reads—"The Library of Congress as a National Library"—it permits me to speak not of what the library is, but of what it may be.

The term is "national," not "federal." The Library of Congress is a federal library and will continue to be, whatever the general service that it may perform. As a federal library it will owe to the literature of the country as a whole the duty which the state library or the municipal library owes to the literature of the smaller geographical area which maintains it: that is, to accumulate and preserve, irrespective of present demand. For the United States it must be as these others for their lesser areas, a library of record.

As a federal library it must render a service to the federal government. It was established to serve but one department of the government, the legislative. It has come to serve all three—legislative, executive, and judicial. In addition, it is a laboratory absolutely essential for the bureaus of the government engaged in scientific investigation; and, as you know, these bureaus are many and the amount and variety of their investigations prodigious, exceeding those of any other government, or two governments, in the world.

As a federal library, then, the Library of Congress must exist for the convenience of Congress, and its law division for the convenience of the supreme court and its bar; it must aid the executive departments in works of practical administration, a great many of which—now that we have come to be a world power—involve investigations into descriptive or scientific literature; and it is a laboratory for the scientific bureaus, except so far as their needs are supplied by the working libraries which they themselves maintain.

But the term is not "federal," but "national," and the question therefore is as to a service not to the federal government which directly maintains it, but to the country at large.

The general theory of our national functions is that the nation—that is, the federal government—shall undertake only those services which cannot be performed, or can but imperfectly, or at excessive cost, be performed by the local authorities—state, county, or municipal. This limitation may readily be applied here. The national library for the United States should limit itself to the undertakings which cannot, or cannot efficiently, or cannot without extravagance be carried on by the several states or smaller political subdivisions; or (since libraries are a frequent and common form of private benefaction) are not adequately cared for by private endowment.

One great group of activities we may at once set aside—those which deal with the elementary and the general reader. To provide for the elementary or general reader is no more the duty of the national government than to provide for the elementary pupils in the schools. But besides the elementary and general reader there is an investigator. The investigator stands on a different footing. His purpose is not self-cultivation, but the establishment of general principles. An investigator who establishes a general principle has benefited the entire community. To aid him is a proper concern of the entire community.

Now such investigators exist all over the country: in the universities of course, and also in the small colleges, and countless of them without any academic connection whatever. Some of them are within reach of municipal, others of academic libraries, a few of endowed libraries—all of these generous in service. How far do they meet the needs?

A map of the United States exhibiting them would show at a glance one need not met: the need of an equalization of facilities. Even the popular lending libraries are grouped in certain areas out of proportion to population; and the great collections of specialized material, collections necessary to advanced study and to original investigation, are massed in a few spots, chiefly in the far East, the North, the Middle West, so-called (that is, the states between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi, and California; and either in a few large cities or in university towns. In a country of the size of Great Britain such concentration is no inconvenience. In a country covering 3,000,000 square miles it may form an absolute impediment to research of high importance, by men of high capacity. Even, however, in the centers best provided the present or prospective service does not appear completely to cover the need, for with the exception of the endowed libraries there is no class of local library whose primary duty is to research. The municipal free library is a department of the system of popular education. It is to aid the systematic instruction of the common schools and to supplement it; it is to give opportunity for self-instruction to those who have missed the schools or wish to go beyond them; and opportunity for self-cultivation to those who justly look to books for this service. To do this reasonably will exhaust all its energies; to do even this completely is impossible—impossible with the funds likely ever to be available. Each municipal library must take care first of the people of its own city. It must take care first of the general reader. There is little prospect that the ordinary municipal library can do more. It has some other limitations: it must devote its funds to general literature, it desires only the worthy books, and in the literature of knowledge it gives preference to the books which interpret agreeably and intelligibly, rather than to those which are the original sources. It can rarely afford the unusual and little used book; and, as a rule, it has not space for it. If, then, it assists research it cannot go far in promoting it. Its primary duty is in service of a different nature.

The academic libraries in this country, in particular the university libraries, have become the custodians of material of eminence which they employ most generously in aid of research. More than any other class of libraries they at

present promote research. Their first duty is, however, to supply the material required in the work of direct instruction. Their funds are not generally able to go far beyond this. They are apt to be embarrassed for space to accommodate conveniently highly specialized material which comes by gift and to make it useful in catalogs and bibliographies. Already the authorities of our oldest university are considering the suggestion of its president that the largest, the oldest of our university libraries, which has heretofore grown comprehensively, shall hereafter restrict itself within the much narrower dimension requisite for the immediate needs of its faculty and students.

"Selected libraries" of general literature, working libraries of necessary reference books, museum collections of books that for their form or dress, or rarity, attract the private collector—all of these taken together do not make a research library. In literature the need of research is bounded only by the limitations of the literature which exists, and in a country such as this the need of the investigator is not fully met by local libraries however generous, which are limited in means, in space, and have a primary duty to a local constituency.

Taking, therefore, the state and municipal libraries in the aggregate, and making due allowance for academic and for endowed libraries for research in particular fields, there seems room in this country for one library that shall be (1) a library for special service to the federal government; (2) a library of record for the United States; (3) a library of research, reinforcing and supplementing other research libraries; (4) a library for national service—that is, a library which shall respond to a demand from any part of the country, and thus equalize opportunities for research now very unequally distributed.

These are but a few aspects. Let us consider them a moment before passing to others. What do they require? In the first place, an ample building. This we have. Most of you know it by observation, all of you by description and by report. It is exhibited here by model and photographs. Certain of its features and characteristic work within it are being described by my colleague, Mr. Johnston, in connection with the exhibit. I need not review them. Sufficient to

say that the building is a large one, with eight acres of floor space, with present shelving for two and a half million volumes and possible provision for seven million, and with accommodation for a thousand readers at a time. It is also an efficient building.

The second requirement is large collections: a sure provision for the acquisition of Americana, and generous provision for the acquisition of *all* the literature of knowledge. The present collections aggregate 1,350,000 books and pamphlets and three-quarters of a million other articles—a total far in excess of that of any other single collection on this hemisphere, and ranking the library already third among the libraries of the world. Among the sources of increase are three which are unique: (1) The copyright deposits, which ensure to the library two copies of every article copyrighted on or before the date of its publication; (2) international exchange—the returns from the issue to foreign governments and institutions of publications of the United States government, 100 copies of which are placed at the disposal of the library for this purpose; (3) the returns from the exchanges of the Smithsonian Institution with learned societies all over the world; and the surplus returns (not otherwise retained) from the exchanges of other departments and bureaus of the government at Washington. From these three sources the library has already the largest single collection of American imprints of official documents of all countries, and of the publications of learned societies, existing in any single institution. It has become the depository for historical manuscripts in the possession of the federal government no longer required for administrative purposes. It has thus the papers of no less than nine of the presidents, and of many other American statesmen, from Franklin to Chase. Its manuscript collections have now by transfer, by gift, by purchase come to be preëminent in American history. It is, I suppose, now impossible for any work in any period of American history to be definitive without recourse to Washington.

In addition to these sources which are peculiar to itself, the library has what other libraries have—the resource of ordinary exchange and of purchase; and its appropriation for purchase is now $98,000 a year. Freed from any expen-

diture for current copyrighted books and a considerable mass of other material, this may go far. It might do much even in the purchase of the rare and curious books suited to a museum library. It is not, however, being applied to these. It is being applied to the acquisition of the material not precious from its form or rarity merely, but useful from its content. There is an immense mass of such material which cannot be acquired by the ordinary library; or which if acquired, could not adequately be maintained by the ordinary library, and which yet is needed by the investigator. The need may be only occasional, but when it comes it may be of vital importance. It may come at one time at only one point, so that a single copy of the book, if liberally administered by an institution having a duty to the entire country, may suffice to meet it.

Fifty years ago it was a grief to an observer that all the libraries in the United States together would not have furnished Gibbon the sources for his history. All the libraries in the United States will never, I suppose, be able to furnish to any historian of European history the sources for a definitive history based upon original sources. For European history, and indeed for that earlier history of America whose origins are European, and whose relations are inextricably interwoven with the affairs of Europe, the original sources are and must remain, abroad. But the secondary sources—that is, the printed book, and reproduction of the original sources in transcript, and where necessary in facsimile: these may ultimately be looked for in Washington. Such a collection is not built in a day. The library is, to be sure, not at its beginnings. When the new building was completed eight years ago it was already a collection of three-quarters of a million volumes; but only from the completion of that building—only indeed within the past five years—has it had resources for systematic growth reasonably adequate to the problem.

The building and the collections being given, the third requisite is an organization capable of maintaining them, of developing them, and of making them useful. The organization that we have is not a huge one, consisting indeed in the library proper of less than 240 persons; but it represents for the technical work a force somewhat carefully developed

during the past eight years; and the division of now 90 persons which deals with the work most technical—that is, classification and cataloging—represents, I believe, a group as highly expert as is maintained by any library, and larger in number than is maintained by any other two libraries. Unfortunately, a large part of its energies must still be applied to arrears of both classification and of cataloging, representing work which should have been spread over the past fifty years. No estimate of the service which the library can ultimately render is safe, and, I may say, no criticism of imperfections in its present bibliographic work is just, until these arrears shall have been completely dealt with; nor is consistency in rule or method in such work to be hoped for while both rule and method are being worked out and determined by actual experiment during the present, which is still an experimental, stage.

The expert service of a research library must extend beyond its classifiers and catalogers. It must include interpreters. The expert service of the Library of Congress does include some interpreters—men of special training in the subject matter of knowledge, in addition to classifiers and catalogers, as well as accomplished bibliographers who are, to some extent, specialists trained in the subject matter of literature. Our faculty of these is small, and but partially covers the various departments of knowledge, but they may be to some extent supplemented from the scientific bureaus of the government, whose aid can be invoked where ours is imperfect; and their service in the compilation of bibliographies and in the direct response to particular inquiry, resident and non-resident, is a potent one. But I lay stress upon the group engaged in the technical work of classifying and cataloging, because it is their product that specially concerns libraries in general.

The collections being there, what can be done with them? There is of course the direct and immediate use upon the premises. In the case of national libraries abroad, this service is considered an adequate service. The British Museum, for instance, is, as you know, a purely reference library. The other great national libraries of Europe are essentially reference libraries. But, as I have said, a limitation which works no hardship in Great Britain might work a considerable deprivation in the United States.

The Library of Congress is lending books. It has lent them as far east as Maine, as far west as California, as far south as Texas. It lends them only to libraries, but of course for the benefit of individuals. They must be required for serious research—that is to say, for an investigation calculated to advance the boundaries of knowledge. They are not lent for the purpose of private study or self-cultivation. The need, in other words, must be a matter of public concern. But with these conditions fulfilled the library does lend. There is, of course, some risk of loss in transit, and there is also the wear and tear upon the books. There is a possibility that some book lent may be lost to posterity seeking it at Washington. There is a risk, to the charge of which I know of but one answer; that a book used is, after all, fulfilling a higher mission than a book which is merely being preserved for possible future use.

The character of the demand already met is assuring. It is very largely for out-of-the-way articles in society transactions or the less common scientific periodicals. The number of volumes thus far issued is not great—a thousand a year—but we have not particularly advertised our willingness in the matter.

Here, then, is a service outside of the limits of Washington. It is indeed a service to the country at large. In dimension it is at present no great service, but its dimension is not to be reckoned by the number of volumes issued. A thousand books for mere self-amusement or self-cultivation issued to 1000 readers will not be a great contribution to the advancement of learning; but 1000 works of scientific content issued to investigators are a very different matter. In the hands of investigators they are transmuted through written word, by word of mouth, or in principles newly ascertained, and are thus diffused throughout the entire community. A visitor to the library remarked to me: "Ah, I see, this library is supplying the authors who are filling the Carnegie libraries!"

The amount of investigation under way in the country is not to be reckoned. The variety and extent of material requisite for an investigation absolutely thorough seems to be indefinite. A collection containing everything that has ever been printed would doubtless in every one of its parts find

some use at some time. Do we propose a collection of everything in print? Heaven forbid; or even of all that's fit to print. A collection comprehensive in scope is one thing; a collection made with reference to something more or less than merely literary worth, and something beyond the present demand, is one thing; but an indefinite accumulation without discrimination and without selection is another thing. The Library of Congress must discriminate. It must reject much that is available to it without cost and must select among the material available by purchase. Its range will be far wider than that of any local library, and still there must be both discrimination and selection.

Subject to this, the mere accumulation at our national capital of a collection comprehensive in scope, representative of all departments of literature, and as completely as possible exhibiting the product of the American press, would itself render a national service. Such a mass, even if inert, would offer some lessons and exert some influence. It would be at least a monument.

Which is not to say that it need be inert.

The active service of such a collection may consist in the direct issue of books either on the premises or abroad, but also in bibliographic contributions based upon it or in the direct aid to inquirers rendered by the experts administering it; or, finally, in the example furnished of method and system as applied to it.

The single great bibliographic contribution of the British Museum is its catalog in book form. The notable contribution of the Library of Congress is its catalog on cards. What this is you know. What it means, or may mean, can at present only be roughly guessed at. It is in the first place a catalog, which is to be a complete catalog of the largest collection of books on this hemisphere, indefinitely expanding. As such a catalog it will be available in copies placed at over a score at least of centers of research in this country. As such a catalog it is a bibliographic aid in the same way as is the catalog of the British Museum, but covering in part a field very different, and covering this preëminently. It is to inform the investigator what books are in the national library. It will ultimately inform the bibliographer more than does any other

one publication, or perhaps all other publications combined, what books are in print. But it is something more than either of these. The copies of the cards distributed to other libraries for their own catalogs become a part of their own apparatus. The sale of these cards to other libraries began you will recall, three and one-half years ago. We have not sought to press it for three reasons: (1) Because the distribution involves to the Library of Congress an expense and some inconvenience not at all reimbursed by the subscriptions received; and (2) because the cards at present cover but a fraction of the existing collection, and (3) because our methods and rules of entry are still undergoing revision, and we did not covet the task of explaining changes or of satisfying subscribers as to inconsistencies. We have not, therefore, sought to push the sales. They have, however, increased each year in almost geometric proportion. The list of libraries subscribing, or I will say participating, now totals 608. The receipts from sales during the past fiscal year will have exceeded $16,000. You are aware what it costs to catalog a book. The ordinary estimate is from 20 to 35 cents. Five copies of a printed card cost but 4 cents. The saving to the subscribing library as against the cost for doing the work independently is thus from 16 to 31 cents on each book cataloged, or from 4 to nearly 8 times the amount it pays for the printed cards. The saving, therefore, to the subscribing libraries during the present year will have been from 4 to, say, 7 times the total amount paid in—that is, from $64,000 to $112,000. Even if we take the mean of this, in order to allow for some clerical work required on certain at least of the printed cards in order to adapt them to the catalogs of a particular library, we shall have $88,000—a substantial saving effected.

These cards are produced primarily for the library itself. The copies supplied to other libraries for their own catalogs are a mere bye-product. I believe, however, and I have suggested elsewhere, that in the end so large a percentage of the libraries of this country will be getting so large a percentage of the cards for so large a percentage of the books in their own collections that the production of these cards alone would justify the maintenance of a national cataloging bureau at the expense of the entire country irrespective, mark you, of any other use of the books cataloged. In other

words, that it would pay this great community, through its central government, to buy a book for the mere purpose of cataloging it and making the catalog entry available in these printed cards, even if the book should then be thrown away.

Yet we do not propose to throw it away.

To supplement other collections for research your national library must have the unusual book; to enable its cataloging work to be serviceable to other libraries of varying types, it must have the usual book. The distribution of its catalog cards, therefore, will tend to round out its collections in directions which mere research would not require or justify.

Of bibliographical aids in book form we publish, as you know, some reports, a very few catalogs of special portions of the collection, chiefly form groups, select lists of references on topics under discussion, and, beginning recently with the "Journals of the Continental Congress," some manuscript material *in extenso*. Of these the reports may have some administrative value, the catalog a value which other catalogs have, the lists of references may save some multiplication of work in local libraries. The publication of manuscripts is not perhaps so much a service from us as a library as a duty from us as the custodians of original sources for American history. But in two publications—one of the past, and one proposed for the coming year—we have undertaken a service of a different nature. The first was the "A.L.A. catalog"; the second will be the "Portrait Index." The service of the latter of these will of course include a service to research. The service of the "A.L.A. catalog" will be chiefly elementary and popular; but in publishing the catalog we render that service not directly to the individual, but to the institutions—that is, the libraries themselves, which serve him. I believe that this distinction may be salutary throughout. While a national library does not supply the elementary or general reader, but rather the investigator, yet it may aid the libraries which do supply him where the aid that it can render will accomplish for them something that they cannot individually accomplish for themselves, or if undertaken by them individually would represent a great multiplication of expense. To gather up authoritative opinion upon public questions of general con-

cern and to use its facilities for making this generally available—this also may be a function of a national institution, whether it be a department of agriculture or a bureau of education, or a marine hospital service, or a national library.

There is a direct service to readers, or to inquirers. In a library serving merely a local constituency this consists in the direct service to resident readers. The Library of Congress has its local constituency. It includes, outside of the government, a considerable number of men attached to the academic institutions in Washington and pursuing advanced study or research. It includes also some resident investigators unattached, and it is coming to include an increasing number of non-resident investigators who visit Washington for limited periods for the express purpose of investigation. But beyond this there is now a service by correspondence; for the library answers every appeal for bibliographic information that comes to it from anywhere. The number of such appeals reaches now perhaps eight or ten thousand yearly, and they come from all parts of the United States, and are upon subjects most diverse. Those which can be answered from material in the library are so answered. Where they cannot be, the inquirer is referred to a more competent, or more appropriate authority.

"In the Carnegie Library, this city," writes a correspondent, "is a notice to the effect that anyone not finding the information they desired in that library should address you."

Then there is method itself. Of this, so far as we have example, one may not speak complacently—at least, I am not that one. A national library is conceivable which would exemplify, in its own administrative processes, methods and service, as well as in its collections and apparatus, what is most efficient and most economical for other libraries. The Library of Congress makes no pretense to this. There are, of course, certain branches of a library system, as well as certain apparatus necessary to a library of a popular type, which would have no appropriate place or use in a research library. If example of this is to be furnished by the federal government, it must rather be looked for in the free library of the District of Columbia than in the Library of Congress.

For libraries of research the operations of a national

library that might offer analogy would be those which concern the accommodation of material, its classification, its exposition in bibliographies and catalogs, and its interpretation by experts. The problem of selection in a library which has such large accessions by copyright, gift and exchange, and so small an immediate constituency, has little of analogy. The methods of purchase might have some. The system of record, of use, etc., is, in comparison with the scientific purpose, of trifling moment.

Classification is a matter of supreme moment, or would be unless we give that place to cataloging. How excellent a service if the national library could adopt a classification which would become universally current! We have had visions of such a one. They have passed. We long considered existing systems, in the hope that one of these might be adopted by us, if that could be seen to have a clear prospect of general adoption. We considered long, but felt obliged to conclude that no existing system likely to be generally current would serve our purpose without modifications which would defeat the very purpose of uniformity—that is, identical call numbers. We have proceeded to construct a system of our own, and have thus added one more crime to the calendar, and further confusion.

We have sought extenuation in this reflection—that it is a matter, after all, relatively indifferent as to whether a book occupies an identical position in relation to its class upon our shelves and upon those of any other library, provided that we supply to that other library, a key to its position upon our shelves, and in a particular division of literature, by supplying a printed system of our classification. If the same notation be not used, at least, with the aid of such key, the symbols of one notation may be translated into the symbols of another.

I say we have sought extenuation in this. How far the efficiency of our cards and other bibliographic apparatus is to be diminshed by the fact that the call numbers are not identical with those of the same books in the recipient libraries is yet to be proved.

Uniformity in cataloging stands, in our opinion, upon a very different basis. Heretofore we have not offered our practice as a model. Inevitably, however, it has to be con-

sidered, and it has entered into discussions of uniformity in cataloging rules. We have contributed our opinion to this discussion, and have sought to make all the concessions that were consistent with our willingness to have the final compromise represent our own practice. There are still numerous points of difference, but, as you know, many that were a half dozen years ago points of difference have come to be points of agreement. There has been progress, and the points that remain unsettled are, I believe, for the most part of minor importance, at least of detail. In considering what the compromises should be it must be remembered that your national library is to be a great research library, whose catalog is to be a piece of permanent apparatus and for scholarly reference, not for superficial or temporary reference, and that the catalog entry produced by such a library, with an adequately expert staff, will be more full, as it will attempt to be more thorough, than an entry which would suffice and perhaps would be convenient for an ordinary library.

Of personal service in interpretation there is not yet much to say which could be said compactly or concretely, and I will avoid it wholly, except to refer to a suggestion in my last report—that a library with the collections, the equipment, the organization, and the relations of service of the Library of Congress offers opportunity for a valuable experience which a national library might furnish as a school of experience for the higher grades of library work.

In the character of their service the libraries of this country do not accept as limitations the areas of the political divisions which maintain them. If they did, we might foresee an organic structure in which municipal library would be subsidiary to state library, and the state libraries as a whole, in certain of their relations, subsidiary to the library of the nation—not, of course, in their organization or government, but in their service. Neither logic nor constitutional propriety is likely to determine such relations. But a specific request from the state libraries to the national library for a concrete service to be rendered to or through them is certain to be effective.

Lastly, if there is a matter of international concern upon which international coöperation should be sought, coöpera-

tion between institutions as distinguished from associations, it is the national library of our country which would represent the community of libraries in the exchange of view and of effort.

In fine? A collection indefinitely expanding, at once a monument of American literature and an exposition of the serviceable in all literature; resident at our national capital, but made available in non-resident service through the loan of material required for research, and through the exhibit in bibliographies of the material most important for research in particular subjects, and expounded by experts in response to particular inquiry; a central bureau upon matters bibliographic; a central bureau for cataloging, the product of whose work may be utilized by other libraries; and—a few other things. Pleasant matter of speculation, *some part* of which has been brought from the realm of speculation into the realm of—promise.

I recur to Edward Everett, that sensitive soul: "Who," exclaimed he, eighty-five years ago—"who can see without shame that the Federal government of America is the only government in the civilized world that has never founded a literary institution of any description or sort?"

HOW THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS SERVES THE PEOPLE

While Mr. William Warner Bishop was superintendent of the reading room, of the Library of Congress, he published this article in *Public Libraries*. Giving somewhat more detailed explanations of what the library does for individuals over the country, it seems to form a practical sequel to Mr. Putnam's broad survey. Mr. Bishop was born in 1871. He is a graduate of the University of Michigan where he has held the position of librarian since 1915. He began his library work at Garrett Biblical Institute, was head cataloger and then reference librarian at Princeton University, and superintendent of the reading room at the Library of Congress for eight years. Mr. Bishop has been president of the American Library Association, and is the author of the "Practical Handbook of Modern Library Cataloging."

The Library of Congress has a great and pressing duty to perform in Washington in its service to the various branches of the government of the United States, and, more particularly to Congress. It is further busily engaged in supplying the needs of scholars resident in Washington or resorting thereto for more or less lengthy periods. In the midst of these multiform and strenuous activities—for the Library of Congress is a very busy place—how may it serve the people of the country as a whole? To what extent may it help the individual reader and the individual library? And how is this to be done?

In the first place, the Library of Congress serves the people by the mere fact of its being. It is, we may say with all modesty, the largest library in the country, and the best known throughout the land. The fact that the Federal government has put up a magnificent palace and has gathered in it over two million volumes is of itself no small matter to librarians. It is a recognition of our profession and its importance which

can not but react helpfully on every librarian in the country. Each librarian shares in the dignity and honor which the creation, the growth, the maintenance of this noble library imply. The attitude of the whole people toward libraries can not but be to some extent influenced by the very fact of generous recognition of their value and importance by the national government.

For the people of the United States come to the Library of Congress. Last year there were over 888,000 who came inside the building. Probably over 500,000 of these were not residents of Washington. Some of them were but passing tourists—some were scholars who came to study rare manuscripts or maps—some were college students who came away with a renewed sense of what a library is—and the pride in what *their* library is. For it *is* theirs, and the sense of ownership is strong on the part of the average American visiting Washington. May it never be less! When the American citizen gets to thinking of the government as something foreign to himself, our democracy will have suffered a radical and unwholesome change. The nation's library, then, is of some service to the library profession and to the country by the mere fact that it *is* the nation's library. Its books, its music, its maps, its great collections of prints and photographs, its priceless papers of the Continental Congress, of Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, Madison, Van Buren, Jackson, Polk, Johnson, and other public men, belong to us all.

The Library of Congress has some peculiar duties and responsibilities. The fact that it contains the office of copyright registration and receives the compulsory deposits of copyrighted articles gives it a unique place among American libraries. These deposits and their bulk impose certain duties on the Library of Congress which do not fall upon the ordinary library—the maintenance and rounding out of the music and prints collections in a manner commensurate with the size and scope of the copyright deposits is, for example, one of the duties. Its direct relations with Congress impose on it a task of preparing bibliographies on topics of current interest in Congress. These printed lists represent but a small portion of the output of the Bibliography division, which makes a hundred typewritten lists for one it prints. These typewritten lists can almost always be lent to other libraries, and frequently they can be given to them. Being the office of exchange of the U.S. gov-

ernment publications for those of foreign governments the Library has necessarily to handle the mass of in-coming documents—and incidentally to increase their number, and make more complete the files. That division published as a part of its regular work the *Monthly List of State Publications* which is most helpful to all libraries, particularly to the state libraries. The fact that the Library of Congress contains the copyright office has led to the regular publication (three times a week) of the *Catalog of Copyright Entries* which is the most complete record of the press of America, and which deserves the careful study of both bibliographers and students of literary history.

The Library of Congress began in 1899 to print cards for copyrighted books—you all know the result. It has become the central cataloging bureau for the United States, and now carries a stock of over forty million copies of its cards. This is another unique feature. Moreover, having the Government printing office at hand, through the liberality of Congress it has published a notable array of calendars, special catalogs, bibliographies, and texts. These are all at the service of other libraries and of individuals for trifling sums. These various activities distinguish the Library of Congress from other libraries—but they all make it more useful to the states.

This usefulness is, however, rather indirect than direct and personal. I have thought it wise to mention some of these peculiar features of the Library of Congress to show certain channels of helpfulness which are, perhaps, but partially recognized, and incidentally to let you know that we have duties of our own which absorb most of our time and strength. As to more immediate and personal relations of service we may perhaps state briefly what we already do—and then what we unfortunately can *not* do.

The most direct service we render to persons who do not come to Washington is in answer to inquiries by letter. These are already very numerous, so much so as to prove an embarrassment at times. The kind of questions which the Library endeavors to answer is thus set forth in the "Rules and Practice:"

> A service to the Library distinct from that involved in the actual loan of books is that performed by answer to inquiry through correspondence. The character of the questions which the Library answers most willingly is noted below:
> 1. As to its possession of a particular book.
> 2. As to the existing bibliographies on a particular subject.

3. As to the most useful existing authorities on a particular subject, and where they may be available.
4. As to the author of a book by a known title.
5. As to the date, price and probable cost of a specific book.
6. For the source of a particular quotation, if ascertainable for ready reference.
7. (If not requiring elaborate research) for other particular facts in history or literature; in the organization or operations of the Federal Government.
8. (Where of moderate extent) for an extract from a book in its possession. . . .

We were formerly obliged to decline to make copies and excerpts because we had no force to devote to this work. The photostat now enables us to make photo-duplicates at a very reasonable rate. Thus the whole library is practically at the service of anyone who cares to pay the cost of photographic reproductions of a desired passage of a book or manuscript. Frequently this cost is much less than would be the expense of transportation, to say nothing of the need of making the copy of the passage when the book has been received. This process is particularly useful in the reproduction of maps, charts, statistical tables, newspaper articles, and prints. Is a man interested in a map of his locality printed a century or so ago? For sixty-five cents he can get a copy of that map—for which the library may have paid some scores of dollars. Does the local historical society wish an extract from a newspaper in our files? The same trifling sum will secure it, or two passages may be had for seventy-five cents, and so on. The charges are nominal covering only the actual cost of paper and operation of the machine.

The inter-library loan is another direct service, perhaps the most useful and tangible of all. It proceeds, as you all know, on the basis of endeavoring to meet the unusual need with the unusual book. The resources of the Library of Congress are freely open to any other library within the limits which have been found expedient and which are set forth in detail in the "Memorandum" governing inter-library loan. We have excepted very few classes of books from the service, and these only because of definite needs of our own service in Washington. We do not refuse to lend magazines or transactions of societies. We do not refuse to lend a book because it is rare or valuable—indeed, that is just the sort of book we do lend. Of the requests which are not filled over eighty per cent fail

because we do not own the book or edition desired. We will lend to the small library as freely as to the large one. We depend on the professional attitude and judgment of the librarian making the request to see that the book is properly safe-guarded.

But there are certain things which, even at the risk of seeming ungracious, we have to decline to do.

We can not undertake to furnish books for everybody. The mere fact that a book is not in a local library is no warrant for suggesting that it can be secured from Washington. Due regard must be had by the librarian to the purpose for which the book is desired and the character of the request. The Library of Congress lends in aid of research with a view to enlarging the boundaries of knowledge. It can not lend in aid of mere self-instruction or recreative reading, laudable as both purposes are.

The Library of Congress can not undertake to provide (by inter-library loan or otherwise) information in any subject which curious persons may raise. As previously explained, it must limit its answers to correspondents to certain restricted fields. So far as questions are bibliographical in their nature, we are glad to try to help. But even in this direction there are necessarily physical limits to our powers, to say nothing of others. To give a concrete case: a certain man sent in not long ago a list of titles covering six legal cap pages closely (and illegibly) written and asked us to let him know all the editions we had of each book, that he might borrow them through his home library at his convenience. Obviously we could not detail a man to make a search of this nature, in justice to our current work. We offered to turn the matter over to the Card Section and let him pay for printed cards plus the cost of searching, or to refer him to persons outside the library staff who make a business of such work. This is hardly a typical case, but we are occasionally obliged to say, even in answer to librarians, that we are unable to undertake to supply certain information, because of the work involved.

This leads me to remark that we are unable to do research work for people at a distance. When an inquiry is pointed and definite, we do try to answer it. But while recognizing to the full the difficulties which wholly inadequate library facilities often produce, it does not seem reasonable that a person at

the other side of the continent should expect us to solve his knotty problems, correct his misquotations, and furnish him expert bibliographic aid. Certain kinds of work, in other words, can not be done away from a large library.

We can not lend our reference books just because they are needed badly by another library. Generally we have but one or two copies, and they are in constant use here. Do not, however, hesitate to *ask* for reference books. When we have extra copies we will send them, and when we have none available, we will say so by the next mail. But please understand that the refusal is merely to be taken as a matter of fact, not one of policy. If we can supply the need, we will.

We can not lend new novels or cheap books. A great many libraries ask us to send them books which they can buy for a dollar or a little more. By no stretch of the imagination can these be called "unusual" books. They are not within the scope of inter-library loan, as anyone will see on reflection. It not infrequently happens that we are asked to send books in print, at a cost to the borrower greater than that of the book itself. We do not ordinarily send out very recent books which can be bought easily. But we do send such books *in emergencies,* if our copies can be spared.

Finally, to end this unpleasant list of things we can not do, we can not lend genealogies, local histories, and newspapers. Genealogies and local histories are in such constant demand at the library that we can not send them away, even when we have extra copies. (We sometimes do this in the case of local histories.) Newspapers "form a part of a continuous historical record" which the library has a duty to keep intact.

There remains the matter of transportation costs. The Library of Congress has no appropriation from which it can prepay such charges, and it is debarred by law from using its frank in this service. The expense rests, therefore, on the borrowing library. Under the new ruling of the post office books are admitted to the parcels post. Within certain limits the charge is much less than that of the express companies. Librarians desiring to borrow can remit stamps in advance and can, of course, return the books by post. Beyond these limits books are still sent by express more cheaply than by mail, and probably more safely.

To sum up: the Library of Congress, which is the nation's library, stands ready to aid your constituencies through your

good offices in various ways. Its publications, its bibliographies, its catalog cards are yours for the asking or for very small sums. The photostat will bring you copies of its most valuable manuscripts, maps, music, prints, or books at the mere cost of paper and chemicals. Its stores of bibliographic material are yours for the writing. Its books go and come freely so far as may be without hindering the service in Washington. On you rests the responsibility for using or ignoring the opportunities it offers.

STATE LIBRARY ORGANIZATIONS

The organization of state agencies for library service has been rather slow, as the field is large and so varied that methods of handling differ in the several states. State libraries, state library associations and state library commissions are the three agencies to be found, but with the differences in state organization their activities vary. The first and last are official and governmental, while the associations are voluntary bodies of librarians. In the articles included in this section the largest amount of material is on commission work.

WHAT MAY BE DONE FOR LIBRARIES BY THE STATE

All three of the state agencies are considered in this article presented at the Waukesha, A.L.A. Conference in 1901 by Dr. Edward Asahel Birge, then president of the Board of Trustees of the Public Library, Madison, Wisconsin and now president of the State University. It outlines all the work which falls to the hands of state rather than local organizations.

A sketch of Dr. Birge will be found in Volume 3.

The relation of the state to libraries may be considered from three points of view. The first and oldest library function of the state has been the maintenance of a state library, usually begun for the convenience of the legislature and in many states enlarged into a general library. With this function has also gone the indirect support of libraries for historical and scientific societies, incorporated by the state and in some degree representing it. Much might be said on possible lines of work for the state in this direction, but as this function is the oldest and best understood, it may be named and passed without further discussion.

Second, the state holds a relation to the local libraries in communities which are supporting free libraries without aid from the state. The state aids these libraries by enacting proper laws for their organization. In general, the statutes should be such as will give the local library the best opportunity for organization, and will leave it when organized the largest amount of freedom in doing its work. The earlier library laws of the states have very generally contained the provision that, in order to establish a library in a community, the proposition must be accepted by a majority of the voters at an election. This provision has been found disadvantageous in Wisconsin, and was eliminated from our library law in 1897. Experience has shown that it is better to leave the establishment of a library,

like other public works of necessity and utility, to the common council, or other representatives of the people in the larger towns and cities, rather than to commit the proposition to the chance of a general election.

The third function of the state with reference to libraries is that which may be called library extension. Here the state acts directly to aid in the establishment of libraries and the extension of library work in the communities which would otherwise lack libraries. The necessity for this work has become apparent to the more progressive states of the Union within recent years. The justification of this work lies in two main reasons. First, libraries continue for the older youth of the community and for adults the education which the state requires for children. It is neither fair nor right for the state to maintain a system of education which develops a love of knowledge and of reading, and then leave the community without the means for continuing in later youth the development begun in childhood. Second, it is known that the intellectual isolation of the rural communities is one of the main reasons for the much lamented drift from the country into the cities, and it has been found that the establishment of libraries affords one of the most important means of bringing these small communities into intellectual touch with the world.

The states then which have undertaken this work of library extension have usually done so by means of the library commission. The first commission was established by Massachusetts in 1890. Seventeen states had established such commissions by the end of 1900—more than half of them in the two years preceding that date. I have no statistics regarding the establishment of such commissions in 1901. The work of these commissions may be either advisory or missionary, aiding in the establishment of libraries in the smaller communities which are able to establish and maintain them under the guidance and advice of the commission, and directly furnishing library facilities to the smallest and weakest communities. In certain states direct state aid is given to the smaller libraries, notably in Massachusetts, where each town library established under the rules of the commission receives books to the amount of $100. In some states aid is given in the purchase of books. The direct furnishing of libraries is done mainly by means of travelling libraries. So far as I can learn, these are now distributed

by six states. The system has grown throughout the Union, in various manifestations, and its influence in bringing books to the communities that most lack and need them has been of the utmost value. This work is one of the greatest importance, and yet I believe it is one which will ultimately pass into the hands of the counties or smaller governmental bodies than the state.

Lastly, the commissions are aiding in the library work by the establishment of library schools. In Wisconsin a summer school for library training has been held for the past seven years, and represents a class of work which it seems important that each state should undertake, namely: the training of librarians for the smaller libraries in which the salaries paid are necessarily so small that the librarians cannot afford the expense of a complete course in library training. This instruction applies especially to persons already in charge of small libraries throughout the state, who have not had the opportunity to secure professional training for their work, and it is of great value in bringing them in touch with library effort and setting higher standards of purpose and efficiency. Experience has shown that in a two month's summer session instruction can be given of the greatest value to those who are to have charge of this class of libraries.

In this department of library extension which the states have been entering upon during the past decade lies the most important work which the state can undertake for libraries. The work of the library commissions means a systematic employment of the library as an educational and social factor in the progress of the people. This is the true mission of the library, and the most important function of the state lies in effectively aiding it to perform this work.

WHERE SHALL STATE AID END AND LOCAL RESPONSIBILITY BEGIN IN LIBRARY EXTENSION WORK

It was at the Ashville Conference, 1907, that this paper of Mr. Asa Wynkoop's was presented. He attacks the whole problem of state relation to local community from the psychological viewpoint and illustrates from experience what he considers should be the effective relationship. Mr. Wynkoop took his college degrees from Rutgers, graduated from Union Theological Seminary and studied also at Columbia University and Marburg (Germany) University. He was first, inspector of public libraries under the New York State Education Department, but from 1913 to date has been head of the public library section of the Extension Division of the University of the State of New York. Other activities have included the editorship of *New York Libraries* from 1907 to date, and the direction of library publicity in New York state for the United States Food Administration during the war.

Where shall state aid end and local responsibility begin in library extension work?

We have here one phase of a general problem that confronts us in all governmental activities, and indeed, in all centralized efforts for human betterment. In its broadest aspect, it is the fundamental problem of all government and of all social schemes. It is a question that must be asked in determining the wisdom of every piece of state legislation, whether relating to the moral, the intellectual or the industrial life of the community. In such matters as the public health, the promotion of temperance and education, the extension of good roads, the regulation of child labor, the care of the feeble and defective, the regulation of common carriers and a thousand other similar problems, exactly the same question is involved as in

the matter before us,—what ought the state to do and what ought it to leave to local initiative?

Now whatever our attitude toward any of these particular questions, I think we will all agree in the general proposition that whatever can and will be done just as well or nearly as well by local initiative as by action of the state, should be left to such initiative. The bearing of responsibility is the most essential condition of any true development, and for the state to assume any responsibility that belongs of right to either the individual or the community, is to do a grave social injury, even though it be done under the guise of beneficence. It is better even that a community should be left to suffer local evils than that the direct responsibility for removing those evils should be taken away by the state. Only a few days ago this principle was invoked in a vigorous veto message by Governor Hughes. The bill under consideration was aimed to prevent local corruption in the prosecution of an important public work, by putting the construction of the work in the hands of a state instead of a local board, where it naturally belonged. To the mind of the Governor, such a transfer of responsibility would in the end do the community more harm in its political and economic life than the corruption it aimed to prevent. Wise economists and philanthropists are coming to recognize more and more that the giving of help, either by an individual or by a state, is the most difficult and delicate of all human tasks, and often means an injury rather than a benefit.

Applying this principle to the matter of library extension, we see that the question of state aid is not to be determined merely by the general merit of our work or by the direct benefits it may confer. A library in a community may be a very desirable thing, but is it therefore desirable that the state shall enact a law compelling every town to levy a tax for library support, regardless of local initiative, as in the case of New Hampshire? The stocking of a library with books of genuine merit and permanent value is doubtless a thing greatly to be desired, but is it good policy for this reason to take from the local and incompetent committee, the selection of books, and put that work into the hands of a state board? The supply of money wherewith to make frequent and generous purchases of new books is essential to a library's vitality, but ought money to be supplied from state funds for this purpose? A good system of classification and a good catalog are essential to efficiency,

but is this a sufficient reason why the state should itself supply these library tools? Every one admits the supreme importance of having the library in charge of a qualified librarian, but is it therefore the function of the state to prescribe the necessary qualifications? Not until we have considered in each case the effect that our action is likely to have on local initiative and the local sense of responsibility can we answer these questions wisely. More important than that a town should have a library is it that the town shall have a full sense of responsibility for its own welfare. As stated by Mr. Legler in his address before the Portland conference two years ago, the question what *not* to do is quite as important as the question what to do, if the local libraries are to be brought to that degree of permanent efficiency to which initiative and independence are essential. "Better," he said, "that mistakes be made by the local library than that these be avoided by having the commission do for them what they should do for themselves." *Where* then shall we draw the line, and what are the limits of wise state aid?

The question can hardly be answered without briefly considering the more fundamental question, Why state aid at all? To this I would submit three general considerations:

1. The intellectual and social condition of *each locality* of the state is a matter of concern, not only to the people of that locality, but to the whole state. Conditions which foster illiteracy, degeneracy, and crime in one part of the state affect the state as a whole in a very vital way. Apart from considerations of humanity, merely on economic grounds, the state owes it to itself to look after the welfare of its several parts. No more suggestive social analogy has ever been proposed than that of the Philosopher Hobbes, later so carefully elaborated by Spencer in his "Sociology," in which the state is likened to a living body, whereof, if one member suffer, all the members suffer with it. Recently this principle has been strongly urged before the British Parliament by representatives of the Library Association of England in the advocacy of parliamentary grants to local libraries. If the library be a means of promoting good citizenship, it was urged, then library extension is a matter of national concern. To emphasize local responsibility is well, but there is a national responsibility as truly as a local one, and it is as bad to ignore the one as the other.

2. In the second place, by its very constitution, the state can do many things which the individual community cannot do.

For example, the state alone has the power to frame the laws under which the community is to express its will. These laws may be a very great aid to library extension or they may be a serious hindrance. Again there are many forms of combined action which can be directed only by state agency. The state is the natural and logical agent for coordinating and systematizing the work of scattered libraries whereby each may strengthen and enrich the others. Initiative here surely belongs to the state.

3. In the third place, we invoke the aid of the state in this work because the action of the state can be made the most efficient factor in arousing the sense of local responsibility and stimulating local initiative. Interest, enthusiasm, ambition, are not the result of a sporadic and spontaneous generation, but of an intelligent systematic propaganda, and in a matter so closely related to civic welfare, the logical as well as the most efficient agent for this propaganda is the state. For one instance where local initiative has suffered from direct action of the state in its library propaganda, a hundred could be cited where such action has been the direct and only means of arousing such initiative. This indeed has been the main thought in the establishment of the state commissions, and the granting of state aid. In some states, practically the whole work of the commission is thus to create and guide local interest, the only form of aid being moral and intellectual stimulus; and even in those where direct material benefits are conferred, the aim of these benefits is not primarily to *give* something, but to *call out* something, and the benefits are conditioned on this response. Local responsibility is largely a reflex of the state's attitude.

Such I conceive to be in brief the logic of state aid in library extension. The local library is a matter of state concern. The state can do what the locality cannot do. Local action awaits the stimulus of state action. *What is involved in this logic?* A good deal more, I believe than has yet been realized or undertaken in any state.

To mention a few of the things in which I think the logic of state aid has not yet been adequately applied, I would say, in the first place, in the matter of a general or state tax for the benefit of local libraries, if the whole state must bear the burden of local vice and crime, by maintaining institutions and commissions necessitated thereby, surely the state may wisely

assume the burden of fostering local institutions which tend to check degeneracy and crime. If the whole state may profitably be taxed for the promotion of good roads in a distant county, it surely may be taxed to promote good reading in that county. In New York state was appropriated this last year from state funds the sum of $4,093,266 as direct aid to local schools. In the judgment of expert educators it was a wise and profitable expenditure for the state; and no one who has studied the development of local schools in this state recently under the stimulus of such grants can doubt this; but in what essential respect does the claim of the local library differ from that of the local school?

To some extent, the principle of a state tax for libraries has been accepted in most of our states, but in what a halting, apologetic, compromising way! The state which leads all others in the amount of public money appropriated for public library extension and improvement,—the state which last year gave more than $4,000,000 for direct aid to schools, gave $28,000 for direct aid to libraries,—seven-tenths of one per cent. of the amount granted for schools! Just consider the sums appropriated by other great and wealthy states last year for library extension: Wisconsin, $23,500; Pennsylvania, $12,000; Ohio, $9,500; Minnesota, $7,500; Kansas, $5,800; Nebraska, $3,000; New Jersey, $5,000; and so on down to $300 and nothing,—states which appropriated at the same time for the most trivial and temporary purposes, sums which make these figures seem like a beggarly pittance. The fact is, that judged by their appropriations, the states have hardly begun to treat the library cause seriously; and the blame for this I believe rests largely on our library representatives. They do not appear to be at all conscious of the strength, either of the logic of their position or of their cause with the voting population, and are too timid and apologetic by half in urging their claim. For which, do you suppose, an assemblyman from a remote county and his constituents care the more,—for the supply of numerous and superfluous brass bands at the summer encampment of the state's militia, or for the development of local libraries in his district? Yet that very assemblyman votes $30,000 for the former and $5000 for library extension in his state, chiefly, I am convinced, because of lack of a bold, vigorous confident appeal in behalf of the latter cause. I have just read from the reports of one of the commissions of a unanimous resolution passed at a

meeting of a farmers' grange, to the effect that a recent library law and grant had conferred more pleasure and profit on the rural communities of the state than had been conferred by any act in years. With what effect, do you think, such resolutions might be used before legislatures in enforcing the appeal for library support? The commissions have no more important work now before them than the putting of the library cause before our legislatures in its true relations,—not as an object of pity or compassion for which in a spirit of philanthropy they will vote a pittance of public money, but as an educational work of the very first importance to the state and as a social factor worthy of their most serious consideration.

But fully as serious as is the general lack of adequate financial provision for library extension is the failure of the state fully to utilize the provisions which it does make. For example, in New York our present library law providing for state aid to local libraries, the supply of traveling libraries, etc., was passed in 1892. I claim not to have been unusually lacking in public spirit or in library interest, yet it was not until 11 years later, when I went to the library school at Albany, that I learned of these state provisions. All that the state was ready to do was non existent so far as any action of mine was concerned, because I knew nothing of it. Since then I have spoken with many well informed men in regard to this, a very large proportion of whom I have found as ignorant as I was. What then is the likelihood of people knowing of it in distant and isolated communities? What the state does for libraries is largely neutralized by what it does not do. It provides a great State library and offers to loan books to people in all parts of the state, but leaves 99 men out of 100 in ignorance of this offer. It buys a great collection of books for the purpose of supplying small libraries to villages and rural communities, and lets the people of these villages find out by accident, if at all, of these provisions. It offers a sum from the state treasury every year to each community for the buying of books, but whether the news and conditions of this offer reach the community or not is not their concern. How do you suppose this matter would be managed if the functions and facilities of the state were to be assumed by an aggressive business man, to whom personally library extension was to yield the same profit that it does to the state? I say, to whom personally, library extension were as

important as it is to the state? Why, he would have agents and well paid and competent ones too, to visit every town, village and cross roads in the state and make a persistent and systematic effort to arouse interest in each. Lack of interest at the first proposal would not discourage him, but he would send again and again, men whose peculiar quality it was to interest and convince. He would make a canvas of every school district in the state, and would regard every school house as a possible center for the distribution and use of his wares. At every meeting of teachers, farmers, improvement societies and leagues, he would have an agent present to show how the library could help in their work. He would see to it that in every local paper having a constituency which he wished to reach, there was full notice given again and again of what he had to offer.

And I venture to say that in a year's time he would add more new libraries to our roll than we have added in five,—and multiply by ten, the number of places reached by our traveling libraries. Why, a business man would fail almost as soon as he had invested his capital who would conduct his business as most of our states are conducting this library business. 'Tis true, in some states, much of the personal work here advocated, is already being done, notably in Wisconsin, California, Michigan and New Jersey,—in some, library periodicals are published specifically for this library propaganda, library organizers are sent out by the state to inform the public and arouse interest, advertising columns of local papers are employed to publish the work,—but in no state will the commission admit that it has reached the limit of its possibilities in this work; in most states, it is only in its initial stage.

Again in the matter of the promotion and direction of cooperation among local libraries the states are far behind the possibilities of effective state aid. Our great cities are pointing out the way in which this cooperation can be effected, and the benefits flowing from it. Take New York City as an example, with its thirty-five branches, each of which is in a sense a local library responding to local conditions and demands, while all are brought into such vital relations that the strength of the whole belongs to each. One branch builds up a German collection, another a Bohemian collection, another a collection of art, another of music, another of educational works, and so throughout the system, and each reader of each branch has the

whole collection at his disposal. Then in the matter of internal economy, in buying, in binding, in cataloging, and in a dozen other matters, what a saving of money and energy is effected. Suppose these branches were each unrelated to the others, with all its thirty-five Carnegie libraries, what chance would there be for real library development in New York City? The energy and funds of each would be exhausted in doing in 35 centers about the same work, in buying about the same books and the whole would be hardly stronger than one of its parts. Now of course a state cannot bring its scattered libraries into any such close relation as are the branches in a city, but it can accomplish far more in this direction than has yet been done in any state. Why should not a dozen village libraries lying within easy reach of each other by trolley or railroad agree each to develop special features and to exchange with each other the works from these special collections occasionally needed, thus giving an individuality to each library and making the whole region twice or thrice as rich in books as it would be were each library a duplicate of the others? Why should not the duplicates purchased by the large city library while the work was fresh in the public mind and much in demand, but now lying idle on the shelves, be available for use in the distant rural library, where money for fresh supplies of books is so hard to raise? Why should not the village library through the agency of the state have the same advantage in the buying and binding of books as the city library? Why should not the state supply to its libraries a central agency whereby a library having superfluous duplicates, or books unsuited to its peculiar community and therefore of no use, could exchange these on an equitable basis for needed books in other libraries, which themselves are perhaps needing just these books? What means of state aid could we devise that would add more to the riches of local libraries at so slight a cost to the state as the maintenance of a central clearing house for duplicates? Again why should not every local library be so linked to the State library and the traveling library system that through them it should be able to supply at a nominal cost, its temporary needs, and thus be enabled to use the greater part of its book money for works of permanent value? These are just a few of the suggestions as to the possibility of a closer cooperation that may, and I believe ought to be brought about by the initiative of the state. If exercised discreetly, such

action by the state will open up the very largest possiblities for local initiative.

Another matter in which the states appear to be far behind the legitimate requirements for our work is the matter of library training. What state is there which does not maintain at public expense, training schools for teachers, or require some educational qualification for taking charge of a school? Yet there are but three states which provide permanent schools for library training and none in which state credentials for library work are required. Is not the untrained librarian as much an anachronism as the untrained teacher? Does she not represent the same educational and economic waste both to the state and to the community? Indeed, is not the qualification of the local librarian the one condition of success in all the work of the state for library development? You and I could name cases where in the same *community,* with the same *building* and the *same books,* the work of the library has been multiplied by two and three, simply by the substitution of a qualified for an unqualified librarian. Do you say, this is a matter peculiarly for local action? But such action cannot supply the training school,—*that,* at least, the state must maintain, and would it not enhance the value of the training there given in the public estimate if a premium were to be put upon it in the form of a minimum requirement for library work? And further, would it not give to many a locality a freedom for the exercise of its initiative which it now lacks on account of local, personal, social or philanthropic considerations which hold sway?

These are some of the directions in which it seems to me states have yet far to go before reaching the point where state aid should end.

In conclusion, it need hardly be said that in approaching this point it will be found to be a greatly varying one in different states and in different sections of the same state. What may be a wise, legitimate and much needed form of state aid in one community may be not only useless but offensive in another. This principle is specifically embodied in the laws of some states, notably in those of Massachusetts, where the commission is excluded from giving certain kinds of aid to towns having more than a specified tax valuation. Practically all the commissions are acting more or less on this principle, even where there is no recognition of it in the law of the state. The-

oretical objections have been made to it as a state policy on the ground that it is unjust to take the proceeds of a general tax and apply them to favored communities, and further, that it made the library appropriation appear like an act of state charity. But the distribution of public funds according to the peculiar needs of the different parts of the state is something that is seen in every form of public work. Thus, the state does for the roads of a rural community what it does not do for the streets of a city; for the schools in unpopulous districts, it distributes a ratio of public money decidedly greater than that which it supplies to wealthy and populous communities. In all its public improvements it recognizes the principle stated at the outset, that the state is an *organism,* a *body politic,* and that the well being of the whole is dependent on the well being of its *several parts.* In making special efforts to conserve the health of its more feeble members, it is most effectively conserving the health of the whole body.

STATE LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

The discussion here quoted is an interpretation by Charles Ammi Cutter of a tabulation of association reports made by Miss Harriet E. Green, covering date and place of organization for each state, need for the association, work accomplished by it, work for the future, special features, number of members, and of constitutions.

Mr. Cutter briefly shows the place that state associations hold in the field of library organization and growth.

A sketch of Mr. Cutter is found on page 17.

In 1876 it occurred to a young college graduate that it would be a good plan for librarians to get together and exchange their information and make one another's acquaintance. The first meeting, therefore, of the American Library Association was held in connection with the Exposition in Philadelphia. Since then meetings have been held nearly every year. Simultaneously with these meetings a library journal has been published, and at the same time there has been a most important development of libraries; enormous amounts of money and of books have been given to them and great improvements have been made in library administration. I take it, it would be claiming altogether too much to assert that this great development of libraries has been caused by the stimulus of the Library Association and the *Library journal,* but I have not the least doubt that it has been very much assisted by our existence, by the discussions which we have held, by the notices in the papers, and by all our meetings, and by the efforts which we have made to advertise the improvement of libraries and the advancement of Library Associations, from time to time, and by progresses, such as we are now making through the country. We have caused the library idea to be more in the air than it would otherwise have been.

But it was found that library conventions had to be held in different parts of an enormous country and that a very

small part of the librarians could attend. There are in the United States some 6,000 libraries; there are probably almost as many librarians. There are at least 1,000 librarians of important libraries, and we bring here from beyond the mountains only fifty! It is evident that there are a great many more who could be benefited and who should receive all the good which comes from library conventions, who are not among our members. It was thought, therefore, to be a good plan to have associations which would not cover so large a ground; one association for each State, one association, if necessary, for each county. That idea came to a head in 1890. Before that, in 1885, the New York Library Club had been founded in New York, and was, in some sort, a State association. Not merely the libraries of the city of New York met in the Library Club, but those of the whole State. New York was followed by New Hampshire, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and in the present year by Wisconsin, Maine, and Michigan, and an attempt has been made in Pennsylvania which was unsuccessful. But we notice that there is not in that list the name of California, nor the name of any State on the Pacific Coast. Why should you not have an association for the Pacific Coast? You certainly cannot be expected to come across the mountains for our annual meetings; neither can we come here more than once in a generation, until, at least, an air-ship is made which shall bring people across the continent in a day or two. Why not have an association which shall combine together all your librarians? If, as I dare say you will, you tell me that your coast is as long as the Atlantic coast, and the difficulties would be as great as in the American Library Association, why not have an association for Southern California, and another one for Northern California, and perhaps for States still farther North? You will find it is very rare for librarians with any brains to be blind to the real advantages of renewing their acquaintances with one another and exchanging their ideas. Twenty of you, I believe, have already met this year. I am sure you must all be convinced it is worth while. As the result of your meeting, you will have many new ideas and make many new experiments, and I think you will be very glad to see one another again.

Perhaps those who are present now may think it is not worth while to come from a considerable distance and meet in such an assembly as this, and listen to papers which might

elsewhere be read, in the report of the proceedings or in the *Library journal.* There is something in this, but I have always been of the opinion that the great good that comes from these library conventions is not in listening to papers. It is a great deal more in listening to the discussions which follow the papers, and more even than that in the little private conferences which are going on all the time on the street cars, in the railroad cars in which people come to the conference, in the hotel corridors, and elsewhere, in which the librarian privately gives his experience, his difficulties, and the way in which he has overcome them. That is what makes these conventions important; and it is just as likely to be useful in a state association as in the American Library Association.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATE LIBRARY

A good deal of emphasis was put by the American Library Association at its Portland Conference in 1905, on the place of the state in library administration. This article by the Connecticut State Librarian given at that time combines theory with practical suggestions. Mr. George Seymour Godard was born in Connecticut in 1865. He attended Wesleyan University and Yale, and became assistant librarian of the Connecticut State Library in 1898. He has been librarian since 1900, was for several years a member of the A. L. A. council, and is a member of the American Library Institute. Mr. Godard has held many important positions in state and law library circles, and is active in their organizations.

Libraries are no longer luxuries confined to the families and friends of the rich. They are no longer looked upon as a charity nor as a gift from the rich to the poor, but, like the public school and the public highway, they are for the use and benefit of every one. In other words, libraries have become an element of sound public policy, and demand the same careful, intelligent and interested official supervision and assistance as is given by the state to any other branch of its public economy. Moreover, to reach their highest state of usefulness and personal comfort, this bond of interested, assisting sympathy between the state and the several libraries within its borders must be supplemented by a similar bond of sympathy between the libraries themselves. But whether this state supervision, this state sympathy, shall be through the state library, the state library commission, the state board of education, or some other medium must, in my judgment, be solved by each state for itself. If the work is being properly done by any existing state department, it ought, in my opinion, to remain there until some good reason demands a change.

We now have our national library, state libraries, county libraries, town libraries, school libraries, college and university libraries, historical society libraries, theological libraries, law libraries, medical libraries, libraries devoted to history, science, art, languages; also libraries of clubs or associations for special study, and special circulating libraries almost without number. Moreover, all of these and many more are intertwined and interlaced through the medium of library commissions, distric, state, interstate, national, and international associations, library training schools, branch and travelling libraries, exchanges, coöperative cataloging, common donors, and many other kindred ties. Since much of this activity has been developed within the last twenty years and is continuing with renewed strength, what is to be the result? What in the midst of such activities must we expect in the development of the state library?

Possibly we might describe the ideal state library as a library located at the capitol, owned and administered by the state, and representing every department of knowledge, having each department immediately under the direction and supervision of a competent expert in such department, and having a supply of books properly classified, cataloged, labelled, and shelved, not only representing the several editions of each work, but with sufficient duplicates to meet at once every call in every part of the state and the neighboring states—using "neighboring" in the broad sense, with a department of archives representing the development of its several towns, counties, and industries, and the genealogies of its families. Moreover, this library to be ideal should be blessed not only with a beautiful, well arranged, well lighted, fire proof building with unlimited, well-lighted accessible and adjustable shelving, but with an unlimited appropriation and the franking privilege.

In the few minutes allotted to me, I am supposed to present to your view the several stages in the development of the state library. I am asked to call your attention, too, to a few steps in the gradual series of processes from a simple and incomplete condition in its life to a more complex and complete organization. For the state library, like so many other institutions and other animate things, is the result of evolution and, in my opinion, will continue so to be, for the end is not yet. Moreover, while it has progressed by stages, it has progressed

in no two states in precisely the same way nor to the same extent.

Practically all of the state libraries of the older states had their foundation in the miscellaneous collection of books which had gradually accumulated in the offices of the several state officials from the beginning. These volumes consisted principally of collections of their own laws and legislative proceedings, books purchased to meet temporary official necessities, or which had been presented by the sister states, foreign governments, or individuals. Until they had been gathered together and arranged and some one made responsible for their completeness and safety, they were of very little service to the public.

It was not until after the War of 1812 that the establishment of the state libraries as such began to be seriously considered, although in 1777, April 22, Congress passed the following resolutions:

"*Resolved*: That it be recommended to the several states to order their statute laws and the additions that may be made thereto to be sent to Congress and to each of the states together with all discoveries and improvements in the arts of war made in such states respectively."

From the last phrase in this resolution we again see the great foresight of the founders of our country. Note: "together with all discoveries and improvements in the arts of war." Evidently they foresaw in their wisdom the mighty onslaught to be made upon us by our modern publishers.

So far as we know governmental libraries began with organized government. The kings of Assyria had their libraries of carved stone and carved clay; the Ptolemies gathered at Alexandria an immense library, and immense governmental libraries were accumulated at Constantinople and at Rome. The national libraries at Paris, London, and the other European capitals have grown, have evolved to such proportions and are now so deep rooted in the fabric of government that they are numbered among the chief attractions of modern Europe, while in our own country the Library of Congress—our national library—is an object of admiration to the world.

It was not until revolutionary times, however, that we find any systematic attempt being made to accumulate regular libraries at the several capitals. The spirit of the 17th and 18th

centuries as evidenced by the administration of the foreign governors who were sent to the several colonies did not seem to encourage governmental libraries. (To be sure, there had been accumulated in some of the states their own laws and their own legislative proceedings.)

Now, the very thought of the individual possession of my ideal state library, just described, is to most states unthinkable, except possibly to New York under Dr. Dewey. The area of human knowledge is unlimited and getting more so. Books! Books! Books! See how they grow. A dozen or more new ones every hour, twenty-four hours a day, three hundred and sixty-five days in a year. Good books and bad books. Large books and little books. Picture books and scrap books. Standard books and books to stand, and someone, somewhere, desiring to see, not necessarily read, each one sometime. Think of it! From eternity to eternity is a long time, and each decade must learn and unlearn so much, but apparently print it all. It is no longer possible within any sort of reason for any one library —town, county, state, or national—to think of enveloping everything printed. The expense of purchasing, collating, cataloging, and housing is prohibitive. Therefore, is it not desirable—as has in some instances been done—that each state library select its departments or fields of work which may thus be made approximately complete, leaving the other departments of knowledge which are thus either neglected or deficient to be covered by other libraries which may in turn be deficient or neglected in some lines covered in this?

There are two extremes to be guarded against in our library development, viz., undue contraction, which may result in channels too narrow to be practical, and, on the other hand, undue expansion, which must result in most libraries in more or less shallowness. There are, however, two lines which the people of a state have a right to expect to find in their state library, viz., whatever pertains to the science of government for the aid of those who are to administer government and whatever illustrates the history, character, resources and development of their state.

The reference department should be especially rich and complete in encyclopedias, dictionaries, gazetteers, atlases, handbooks, and the reliable time savers of our day. So far as needed and possible there should be special libraries for the several departments of state and legislative committees.

The scope of the law department should be a broad one. It should be as complete as possible in its collections of the statute laws and official law reports of the United States and of the several states and England; if not also those of Canada, Ireland, Scotland, and the British colonies, together with such books as mark their development. The world is fast growing smaller and our neighbors are fast getting nearer. The "might be" soon becomes "may be," and before we realize it "is." An attorney, therefore, has the right to expect to find in his state library any books cited in the opinions of his own supreme court and the Supreme Court of the United States, if not everything cited by the highest courts in the several sister states.

The department of archives cannot be over-emphasized. As the writing of history will never end, so the collecting of material for historical purposes must never cease. With each generation there are produced histories of the past, written and interpreted in the light of its own civilization.

States are but individuals, and, like individuals, differ in age, occupation, wealth, and territory controlled. Like individuals, then, they should conduct their several households and fashion their several establishments, being governed largely by their environment, requirements, and financial abilities.

While in general the state libraries should be to the several states what the Library of Congress is to the nation, the system of common schools, academies, colleges, universities, and public libraries in vogue in a state very materially affect the development of the state library. The development of the state library in a state whose several towns have good public schools, good public libraries, and in whose borders are one or more good college or university libraries open to its citizens, will naturally be very different from the development of the state library of a state whose system of education is not so well developed. In the former case the state helps the several communities through the local school or local library, so that the state library is of necessity largely a library of reference, built up not necessarily in all departments of knowledge, but along those lines not adequately represented by the other large libraries within its borders. Such an arrangement or division of labor not only accomplishes the ideal university plan where each department is independent and under the direct supervision of a trained expert, but each library is thus permitted to use all its funds to purchase books along its chosen lines.

It can hardly be expected that the states of Rhode Island, Connecticut, or Delaware, or any one of the smaller states can or will maintain an establishment equal to that of New York, nor that New York will equal our national library. It is not necessary that they should. In these days of rapid transit distance is fast being eliminated, and one can be served practically in his own home. The time has come to club; to coöperate. United we stand. Divided we fall. In the near future I believe local libraries will look to central libraries for books not in common use, and these central libraries will look to larger depositories for books infrequently called for. The states and several communities will, I think, come to see the waste of money there is in purchasing, cataloging, and housing certain books in small libraries when a few copies of such books centrally located will serve an entire state. The local, the central, the university, the state, the interstate, the national, and international, or universal library is a series by no means unthinkable. It should be, and I believe sometime will be, possible for anyone who really needs to consult a special work to be able to consult that work or a reproduction of it or a separate printed from it, practically in his own home. Dr. Putnam's "service to the country at large" is bound to come. Such a service extending through local libraries or in the absence of a local library through designated public officials as local centers, is reasonable, feasible, economical, and needed. Such a system of interlibrary loans under proper conditions and regulations will do much to clear our library and literary horizons.

It is said that through disobedience man fell, that is, he fell by staying just where he was. He fell through not advancing to the better and broader things ahead, which it was his privilege and duty to occupy and enjoy. In the same way there may have been times, and probably will be still, when some of our state libraries—yes, and some of our large public libraries also—seem to have fallen or be falling—falling by not advancing to the field prepared for them from the foundations of the world. But whether this fall of libraries is due to disobedience, lack of funds, lack of administration, or lack of the franking privilege, I know not. But one thing I do know, it is not from lack of opportunity.

HOW TO ORGANIZE STATE LIBRARY COMMISSIONS AND MAKE STATE AID EFFECTIVE

These are practical suggestions out of the experience of Lutie Eugenia Stearns in Wisconsin, the first state to establish commission work under pioneer conditions, its predecessors being four of the New England states. She begins with legal considerations, touches upon some of those vital spots in the whole system which spell success or failure, and closes with specific suggestions toward the accomplishment of the state library commission's first duty which is "nurturing and fostering the small library." Miss Stearns was born in Stoughton, Massachusetts, and graduated from the Milwaukee State Normal School. She taught for two years and began her library career in 1890 as head of the Circulating Department of the Milwaukee Public Library. From 1897 to 1914 she was connected with the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, since which time she has been travelling as a lecturer.

A state library commission has been not inaptly described by Mr. Johnson Brigham, state librarian of Iowa, as a Yankee device for bringing together the state, with its ample means and its facilities for getting books cheaply, and the people, with their limited means and their unlimited and illimitable longing for books; that shrewd device for bringing together the people who may, can or must, might, could, would or should read, and the books that should be read.

That such bodies are finding favor with those that have the best interests of libraries at heart is shown by the fact that no less than 13 state library commissions have been organized within the past nine years—such bodies now being found in Massachusetts, which led off in 1890, followed in turn by New

Hampshire, Connecticut, Vermont, Wisconsin, Ohio, Georgia, Indiana, Kansas, Minnesota, Colorado, Pennsylvania, and Maine —the six last-named having joined the ranks during the past winter. That each of these state library commissions exemplifies the library missionary spirit of the age may be shown by the fact that it is expressly stipulated in each one of the bills creating such commissions that no member of such body shall receive any compensation for services rendered; indeed, the members of two boards, those of Georgia and Pennsylvania, have been granted the privilege of paying their own travelling expenses.

Any state, no matter how politically depraved may be its legislature, may secure a state library commission when the law-makers are made to realize that the bill is backed by a strong public sentiment, and when a practicable plan is shown of maintaining it at a reasonable expense. A bill carrying with it an appropriation of but a few hundred dollars is generally passed over by the watch-dogs of the treasury. A measure headed "To promote the efficiency of free public libraries" has no attractions for the scalping-knife of such practical politicians as a Croker or a "Hinky Dink," who passively ignore the first, second and even third readings of the bill. Their inactivity does not mean, however, that the bill should be introduced and then be allowed to find its own circuitous way through its passage; for such inattention may result in the early burial of the measure in a committee's box, too deep for after-resurrection. In advocating the passage of the measure, strong allies may be found in the various educational associations, such as state federations of women's clubs, teachers' associations, and in personal letters to the legislators from well-known and influential men and women of the state. Sometimes, however, where a state is commission-ridden and has expensive Fish, Forest, Mining, Labor, Dairy and Food commissions, it may be well to proceed quietly and leave the bill in the charge of a wise legislator interested in educational advancement. The greatest care should be exercised in drafting the desired measure. The best features of existing bills may be wisely adopted with modifications to suit the local conditions. If it is desired, through the law's provisions, to divorce the state library from political control, the Ohio commission bill may be wisely studied. In states where it is customary to turn all rascals out at intervals of two

years, it may be well to fortify the commission by a majority serving ex-officio. In two or three instances, among the library commissions recently created, the state librarian acts as the secretary of the commission. This we do not deem a wise provision, especially where the tenure of office of the state librarian is a brief one, as it would mean a constant interruption in the commission's work. If the state librarian could be appointed by the commission and serve at its pleasure, this part of the difficulty would be remedied. In any event, the sooner the library commission can employ a paid secretary and assistants, who shall devote their entire time to the work, the better for the library movement.

After deciding upon the membership of the commission and its officers, its powers are next to be considered; and right here is where the kindly missionary spirit should be made manifest. "The commission shall give advice and counsel to all free libraries in the state and to all committees which may propose to establish them, and to all persons interested, as to the best means of establishing and administering such libraries, the selection of books, cataloging, and other details of library management. The commission may also send its members to aid in organizing new libraries or improving those already established"—such a provision as the foregoing will show the commission's willingness to aid every library endeavor.

The western and southern states of our land are not yet ready, we believe, to establish libraries through compulsory legislation. The conditions which obtain in the west, as affecting library development, are but little understood in the eastern part of the country. In the west there are whole communities of foreigners who never had the advantages of free libraries in the far-off fatherland, and who, therefore, know nothing, at first hand, of their benefits. Again, towns in the west are still being cut out of the heart of forests, schoolhouses, churches, and dwellings are being built, water and sewerage improvements made, sidewalks and pavements laid, all causing heavy burdens of taxes and expense. Such reasons as these cause libraries to be regarded in a certain sense as luxuries and not necessities. Any attempt at coercion would be met with fierce antagonism. But ofttimes, undismayed by the taxation bugbear, the library commissioner goes to "Forestville," studies the local conditions, confers with the liberal-spirited and wise-

minded, succeeds in getting the village president to appoint a library board of interested men and women under the state library law, whose duty it then becomes to devise ways and means of securing the blessings of a free public library. The proceeds from entertainments, fairs, lectures, suppers, etc., in which all join, go to swell the library fund until the library becomes so essential in promoting the general happiness of the town that the people willingly tax themselves for its support. A library started under such conditions, with untrained and gratuitous service, is not ready to be officially inspected nor marked below grade for the absence of an altogether too expansive system—for its purpose—of classification; but its management warmly welcomes and adopts any advice or suggestions when tendered in a kindly way through the medium of a wholly friendly visit from the itinerant commissioner.

And here comes in the question of state aid. Some of the eastern states have adopted the principle of giving a grant of money upon the opening of a free library. In others a few books are given as an incentive to start the ball rolling. Now it is the universal experience that the occasional receipt of new books is the factor, above all others, that sustains the community's interests in a public library. The difficulty in library extension in small villages lies in the fact that the small annual income for a library is eaten up by its running expenses—librarian's salary, fuel, light, and rent—and too little is left to buy semi-annual supplies of fresh books, and a library without such additions soon loses its popularity and support.

In discussing the question of state aid, therefore, might it not be well to devise some method by which the state could assist in sustaining the interest in the library; and how better could it do this than by sending to each of the smaller communities, at regular intervals, a box of fresh literature—not necessarily composed wholly of the latest, but many of the best, that are not usually found on the shelves of village libraries? In other words, might it not be better to invest a lump sum in good books, leaving a margin for late additions, and then, by a wise system of exchange, give an entire state the benefit of each and every book? Would not the knowledge that fresh books were to be received every six months, year after year, serve as a greater incentive to a community in starting a library than to be given $100 once and for all, or

$50 worth of books outright? This subject will bear the serious and thoughtful consideration of all interested in the growth of libraries in small towns and villages.

It has been our aim to show that the state library commission's first duty lies in the direction of nurturing and fostering the small library; for, as has been rightly said, it is after all, not the few great libraries but the thousand small ones that may do most for the people. The possibilities in library commission work are infinite. Every commission finds many avenues of labor and each leads to many new ones. Among the agencies for good may be mentioned: (*a*) The collection of books and magazines for travelling libraries, the publication of a library bulletin, with helpful articles on the library profession, details of library management, reports of libraries, unbiased reviews of the best books for village libraries, etc., etc. (*b*) The preparation of articles for the press on the library movement, and the publication of handbooks and circulars of information. (*c*) A library lecturer to rouse apathetic communities of retired farmers and the like to enthusiasm and subsequent action; to address women's clubs, farmers' institutes, town meetings, business men's leagues, and educational gatherings of every description on the various phases of library endeavor; to give stereopticon lectures on the history of the book, public library building, and travelling libraries; in fact, to conduct a perpetual aggressive campaign for more and better libraries. (*d*) A library instructor to go about visiting libraries, meeting with boards of trustees as a committee of the whole on ways and means; settling vexed points of charging systems and other details of library management so perplexing to the inexperienced; to get the librarians of a single county together, for a little institute or section meeting, elementary in character, but sometimes similar to state library meetings, from which many are debarred by reason of stress of time, purse, or distance; to conduct a summer school of library science where librarians for a merely nominal fee may learn the best methods gained from the experience of others and, best of all, absorb what has come to be known as "the library spirit." (*e*) An itinerant circuit rider of to-day, who shall visit the various travelling library stations, such as farmers' homes, logging camps, village post offices, and the like, to counsel with the librarian as to the best management of such libraries. (*f*) An art di-

rector, who shall manage a system of travelling pictures to be distributed in farming communities, schoolhouses, etc.; to foster a love for the beautiful in communities too poor to purchase works of art for themselves.

All this work is in its infancy, but the outlook for the small library is most hopeful and encouraging. For years, as some one has said, the world has been making great reservoirs of blessings in the great cities; but now, from the fountain-head, the state, there comes a well-spring which sends its contents in little rills to sparkle at the doors of the thirsty who cannot come.

LINES OF WORK WHICH A STATE LIBRARY COMMISSION CAN PROFITABLY UNDERTAKE

Gratia Alta Countryman says that library development in the state,—the extension of reading facilities—is the object for which a library commission exists. She outlines three lines of work which experience has shown help to accomplish this object.

A sketch of Miss Countryman appears in Volume 3.

This paper does not attempt any exhaustive study of the work being done by various existing commissions, but for the sake of discussion tries to give a summary of the *kinds* of work which have been undertaken, and which from experience the writer believes can be effectively and successfully carried out.

The work of a library commission naturally falls into three divisions:

1. The establishment of permanent local libraries.
2. The organization and improvement of existing libraries, including the training of librarians in necessary technical knowledge.
3. The circulation of free reading matter in places which have no libraries, commonly in the shape of travelling libraries.

These three divisions will cover almost, if not all, the work which a commission can do. Indeed they open a very wide field of usefulness, especially in the south and west. How much can be done by the commission will depend upon the amount of money at its disposal, and the number of people who can be enployed to carry on such work. But the advisability of doing this or that must depend partly upon the nature of the community and the response which the people themselves make. Some commissions have been able to do what other commissions could not possibly have done. So that the first thing which any commission should do, is to study the conditions in the state, know where the libraries already exist, know the

races composing the population, know the local industries, know the movements stirring in the state with which libraries can co-operate, and be ready to take advantage of favoring circumstances. Library development in the state and the extension of reading facilities is the object for which a library commission exists.

In the headings mentioned above, we have given the lines of work in the order of their importance, and will take them up in the same order.

1. What can the commission do to establish permanent local libraries?

We put this as the chief work of a commission, because it is better to put people to work for themselves than to make them recipients of outside aid. It arouses their local pride to have a library of their own and it is something permanent accomplished.

All of our states have library laws according to which a village or town must proceed in establishing a library. Many towns do not know the law, and do not know how to proceed, and if they are not especially interested they do not take the trouble to find out. If the commission will publish the law, and point out the simplest way to go about it, many towns may be started into action. This spring four or five libraries in Minnesota were started in this simple way—by the printing of the law and simple directions.

In many towns, public-spirited people need only to have the way pointed out by the commission, but in others this is not sufficient. Some enthusiastic persons must be sent right into the field, must awaken interest by personal work, must see the influential people or the town council, must perhaps give a public talk on libraries with lantern slides to draw, until the ball is set rolling, and the people go to work. From the experience of Wisconsin this personal work by a field secretary would seem to be the most telling way of helping to establish libraries.

The commission, if it is so empowered, can offer a small sum of money to each town that will establish a local library, as is done in Massachusetts. This is undoubtedly very helpful to some of the small villages, and is an initial impetus toward establishing a library. It is not enough, however, to give help in the shape of money only, if the library is thereafter left to itself to live or die. Such help ought to be conditioned upon

an annual town appropriation, which would ensure the perpetual support of the library, and such help should be followed up in other practical ways mentioned later.

The presence of a travelling library in a town is an object lesson, which often creates the desire for a permanent library, and perhaps, on the whole, more local libraries have been established in the west through that agency than any other. The travelling library is the good right arm of a commission in more ways than one.

The rivalry which exists between towns is often a healthy stimulus to good works. So we suggest that an annual list of the libraries of the state, with what they are doing, the new ones which have been established, and the towns which are agitating the matter, is good missionary material to send to towns which have no libraries. Some of the comments in country newspapers would lead one to this belief. "Jonesville has a library. We are a larger town than Jonesville. *We* must have a library." Such a list sent annually would certainly encourage healthy rivalry.

Any method which is possible for a commission to adopt, either by personal effort, or printed matter, which awakens civic pride and sets the people to work for themselves is more apt to result in permanent good than a gift of any size.

The commission ought to emphasize at all times the *free* library, and to discourage subscription libraries which are for the few. It ought to urge support by general taxation. Even a gift from an individual is more valuable, if conditioned upon an annual tax.

2. What can the commission do to better those libraries which are already in existence? When a commission comes into existence, they find a number of libraries already started. Some of them are several years old and are laboring under heavy burdens, poor systems, and bad management. Many of them are nearly dead, and if they are subscription libraries, they will probably be facing starvation. It is incumbent upon the commission to resuscitate and give new impetus to these libraries wherever possible. In the case of subscription libraries, the first thing to do is to urge the necessity of a free library, upon a self supporting basis. That may be almost as hard as starting a new one, but it is the only way to revive a dead subscription library. If the library is already free, but for any reason the people have lost interest, that reason should be sought

out. Perhaps they have not known what books to buy and have bought unwisely; perhaps they have not enough money to buy at all, and an effort should be made to increase their appropriation; perhaps the librarian takes no interest in her work, and is killing interest which others might take. There might be a dozen difficulties to be overcome. Begin with the librarian. By visits, or by correspondence, the librarian may be inspired to feel the dignity and importance of her work. She might be urged to attend the state association meetings, until by contact with other librarians, and the constant encouragement which she receives from the commission, she grows to feel a pride in the results of her labor.

I might sum up that the best help is to show an active, helpful interest in each library and its librarian, until the confidence of the board and librarian is gained, so that they naturally turn to the commission for advice.

If the commission has funds enough, some one should be employed who could be sent out to catalog and classify small libraries upon demand, and could help them to use their resources to the best possible advantage. Many a dollar of useless expenditure could be saved them, if they had some one to call upon who could help them on the spot. They cannot afford to hire expert help. The commission ought, if possible, to furnish that for them.

A summer library school conducted by the commission gives an opportunity for training many librarians, who never could go to the larger schools. This is not a great expense for the commission to undertake, and can be done at a nominal expense to the student. It is a much better way to teach systematic technical work, by regular classes, than to teach the librarians one by one in their home libraries. The results are better, and the expense no more. An esprit de corps is produced, a state unity of method and feeling.

Many other effective ways of helping them have been tried:

The making of suggestive lists of books for purchase, with publisher and price.

Reference lists of material for Arbor Day, Memorial Day, special birthdays, etc.

Best books for children.

Suggestions for bulletins, etc., etc.

All of these things give them new ideas, put freshness and life into the work, and make things go.

The New Hampshire Commission has just started a new bulletin to be issued quarterly, which contains library articles and library news. Wisconsin has lately added library news and suggestions to their monthly birthday lists. In such bulletins the very things which small libraries need to know can be mentioned better than in a general library journal.

Most small libraries throw away or at least do not bind their magazines, not realizing their value. The commission can correct this mistake. In Minnesota we are endeavoring to collect sets of the best magazines for the last ten years, which will be given to any small library who will pay for the binding. If possible, a card index will be given to them as a model for them to follow, for Poole's index will be out of the question.

It seems also that it would be useful if the commission would collect plans of small library buildings and be ready to help whenever a town is ready to build. There is just as much chance of blundering in a small library building as in a large one.

If the state commission is connected with the state library there seems to us another opportunity of helping the town library. The state library is a rather expensive bit of machinery if it can be used only at the capitol city. Why should not the state library be directly connected with the local libraries and loan its books wherever needed in the state through the local library. Some states are doing this, we believe, but the commissions of other states might accomplish more along this line.

3. What can the commission do for communities which have no libraries?

This refers to small villages and country communities. It also refers to larger places where the time is not ripe for a local library, or where sentiment cannot be aroused. The travelling library has been the solution. It has not only supplied books and awakened reading instincts, but it has often been the most successful way of arousing local sentiment. Permanent local libraries often follow the advent of the travelling library into the town. The commission either buys and directly circulates these libraries, or spends its energies in securing private gifts of libraries. Private benevolence cannot always be depended upon, however, and a commission is safer if it has funds to buy libraries of its own. A state system of travelling libraries is in a position to treat every part of the state in the

same way. But there is no reason why a combination is not even better.

What can be done through the travelling library depends partly upon the community that borrows it, and there seems to be no end to the things that suggest themselves. The books themselves must be chosen so that they will appeal to all classes and various tastes. They must give pleasure, and they must also be of educational value. The travelling library may be made the medium for distributing material issued by farmers' institutes and by the national and state agricultural departments. The library may contain material which will encourage reading circles and neighborhood classes. Books in foreign languages ought by all means to be included if there is the least demand for them. Magazines and illustrated papers are gladly welcomed. Travelling pictures are growing in favor and are surely going to be a feature in future travelling library work, especially in foreign and uneducated communities. Reference libraries on special subjects, for club work, are a useful branch of travelling library work. Some of the women's clubs in little towns work under great disadvantages through lack of books, and their work is worth encouraging by the commission. If the commission can do so, single volumes ought to be loaned as readily as travelling libraries. A large share of the books loaned in New York are loaned by the single volume. In other words, individual needs as well as community needs fall under the legitimate care of the state commission.

We have not mentioned the institutes which Wisconsin has held for the librarians of travelling libraries. Minnesota is going to try a state institute this fall in connection with the state fair. This is only an attempt to make these country and village librarians realize that they are a part of a large work, not isolated workers, and to make them feel the importance and usefulness of what they are doing.

Work in mining camps and lumber camps would certainly seem to be a useful field for some form of travelling library. We would suggest that the commission, in any or all of its work, should work in conjunction with other organized work. If the women's clubs are already doing something it is better to help them than to start a new work. If missionary societies, or temperance workers, or private individuals are trying to do work in lumber camps, etc., it is better to throw

our work through the channels they have digged, than to make new ones. The commission ought to watch the various civilizing efforts that are going on in the state, and put itself in touch with them wherever there is hope of helping.

New lines of work will constantly be undertaken as the work progresses, and the need shows itself, but the secret of real usefulness will always be in the personal care and helpfulness which the commission and its assistants give to the work.

STATE LIBRARY COMMISSIONS

What they are and what they are doing is the theme of this paper by Henry E. Legler, then secretary of the Wisconsin Library Commission. He finds a field "wide in area, and fruitful of soil" and suggests that the attitude in this form of state work should be that of guide, counsellor and friend rather than of one exerting autocratic authority. A sketch of Mr. Legler, published just before his death, which occurred on September 13, 1917, will be found in Volume 2.

I. What They Are

Statistics of libraries have been collected by the United States Bureau of Education at irregular intervals for about thirty years. Six compilations have been published during this period showing the number of libraries and the number of people per library for each of the years mentioned in the several reports. In 1875 each library supplied an average of 21,432 persons while in 1903 there was a library to every 11,632 persons, showing that the number of libraries had increased twice as rapidly as the population. The increase in volumes in twenty-eight years has been at even a greater rate than the increase in number of libraries. In 1875 the library had 26 volumes to the 100 population, while in 1903 there were 68 to the 100 people. While the population increased 83 per cent. in twenty-eight years, the number of books accessible to the people increased 374 per cent.

These figures, being official and indicative of extraordinary library growth, are apt to induce a feeling of complacency and a belief that the people of the United States are extremely well supplied with library privileges. But statistics will always bear analysis, if wrong deductions are to be avoided. If one millionaire and nine penniless men are put in one group, it will be found that the average wealth of these ten men is $100,000, but doubtless nine of the men

will derive but scant comfort from that fact. At a recent state library meeting some comparisons were made of the cost of books. One economically-inclined trustee proudly announced that the books acquired by his library during the preceding year had cost an average of but 11 cents. He forgot to mention that an ex-congressman had transferred from his attic to the shelves of the library about 1200 public documents amassed by him during his congressional career. This circumstance not only reduced the average cost per book acquired, but greatly amplified the average number of books per inhabitant of that particular community.

To him who hath, more shall be given. Gratification over the extraordinary increase in number of volumes per 100 of the population must be tempered by the fact that the resultant benefit is confined to a fraction of the population. Thousands of people are absolutely without library privileges, even though the stimulus given by the Carnegie gifts has, during the past decade, scattered libraries into regions which would, but for that inducement, remain without libraries today. Perhaps the statistics for a typical state of the Middle West, or as the Bureau of Education would term it, *North Central state,* will suffice to illustrate:

Total population		2,069,042
Population of cities with libraries	866,000	
Population served by travelling libraries	52,000	
Country people with access to city libraries	26,590	
Population with library privileges		944,590
Population without library privileges		1,124,452

According to the official statistics, there are in this state 58 volumes to the 100 of the population. According to the unofficial, but actual fact, certain groups of 100 persons in this state have from two to ten times that number of books within easy reach, and a million and a quarter of people have access to no libraries, and many of them do not see a book from the first day of January to the following Christmas.

Conditions such as these, not apparent from official reports, but actually existent, have given to the public library commissions a field of work wide in area, and fruitful of soil. Commissions, or organizations bearing other names and having equivalent functions, are now operating in 23 states,

eight of them in the North Atlantic division, eight in the North Central, five in the Western, two in the South Atlantic, and none in the South Central. In a consideration of library commission activities, the states in the two latter geographical divisions can be eliminated. In the North Atlantic division, which includes the New England group, the plan of organization and operation differs essentially from that which has found root in the North Central division or Middle West group. In the former, direct aid to libraries, with but limited supervision (except in New York) seems to have been adopted as most likely to stimulate the library movement. In the Middle West, no direct state aid is given the local libraries, but it is held to be important to concentrate effort upon field and instructional work, including the organization of new libraries and reorganization of older ones on approved lines, instruction by means of institutes and of summer schools, and individual instruction to librarians in their own libraries. Instructional publications, such as book lists, bulletins, and circulars of information are also made an important channel of usefulness.

In the western states, the methods that obtain in the Middle West have been followed in essential particulars. In nearly all of them, travelling libraries are circulated for the benefit of remote rural communities where conditions do not warrant the establishment of permanent libraries, and in temporary aid of small and struggling libraries whose limited book funds permit only infrequent or insufficient purchases. The reason for the divergent lines of endeavor governing the commissions in these several geographical groups of states is not far to seek. The characteristics of the one include greater density of population, older established communities, and naturally more public libraries within given areas. In sharp contrast are the conditions which affect the comparatively newer regions of the west, where the material necessities of lighting, transportation, and other utilities overshadow for the time being the desire for intellectual expansion. Naturally, different methods must be employed to meet these differing conditions. Massachusetts boasts that no township within its borders, 353 in number, is without a public library. It will be many years before, in most of the western states, the same condition will be even approximately true. There it is the province of the commission workers:

1. To educate public sentiment so that a genuine desire for library privileges will manifest itself in the practical form of local taxation adequate to proper maintenance.

2. To give personal help in the organization of the library, and to furnish such instruction to the librarian and assistants as will bring the institution to the highest degree of efficiency possible.

In both these endeavors serious difficulties are often encountered. This is an era of public improvements. The construction of gas and electric light plants, roads, courthouses, city halls, and public school buildings swell taxation often beyond the point of endurance, and naturally the average citizen suggests that library appropriations can be deferred till the unavoidable financial pressure is relieved.

When sentiment has finally ripened and the establishment of a library has been determined upon, the selection of a librarian becomes a vexing question. There is apparently in every community at least one needy old lady who requires the position to keep out of the poorhouse, and where she is not insistent, a sister, cousin, or aunt of an influential trustee has the necessary tenacity of purpose to secure it. Sometimes the commission, by firmness supplemented with tact, is enabled to influence the appointment of a trained person. Otherwise, the crude material must be moulded into the best form possible by patient work during visitation of the library and by securing attendance at institutes and library summer school.

State library commissions have been in existence for fifteen years, but sixteen of them have been created during the second half of this period, and it is not surprising, therefore, that their work up to this time has been largely experimental.

II. What Commissions Are Doing

While numerous channels of activity appeal to the exploratory instinct of a state library commission, two problems of paramount importance must engage attention:

1. The problem of the community, urban and rural, without a library.

2. The problem of the small library.

The former problem finds its solution in the travelling library, and is largely a matter of funds to buy and facilities to distribute the most wholesome books to the greatest number of people. Methods differ in different states, some having fixed groups of books with printed catalogs for distribution, and others preferring the elasticity which permits users to make selections. From a recent report may be quoted a comparison of the two plans as operated in the two adjacent states of Ohio and Indiana:

"Ohio had a fund of $7638 for its travelling libraries. Indiana expended last year $1985.02 for its travelling libraries. Ohio employs six persons to administer the travelling libraries; Indiana employs two. Ohio has 30,000 books, many of them duplicates. The Indiana travelling libraries contain 5000 books with only a few duplicates, and circulated 330 libraries, while Ohio, with six times as many books and three times the clerical force, circulated 923 libraries. In a consideration of these comparisons the fact must be borne in mind that the chief work of the Ohio libraries is with the schools and study clubs; that of Indiana with the farmers and general readers."

In some of the Western states, which have a polyglot population and many distinctive communities of foreign-born population, travelling libraries of books in foreign languages for the use of public libraries, and small groups of foreign books in connection with the English travelling libraries, meet the needs for this class of readers. Much work is also being done in connection with study clubs and debating societies, and some attempt has been made to reach military companies and the inmates of penal and charitable institutions. Travelling libraries are also used in connection with small libraries by a coöperative system that enables each library to secure a hundred new books annually, or semi-annually, for a series of years, each subscribing library paying for one group to be exchanged at stated intervals with the other coöperating libraries. There are many independent and voluntary organizations which are engaged in travelling library work, but the tendency seems to be toward centralization in commission hands. In Wisconsin, annual appropriations by boards of supervisors are permitted by law for this purpose, and seven counties now have travelling library systems for the towns within their borders. These supplement the state and proprietary travelling libraries.

Maryland has county libraries, a central library supplying the communities within its jurisdiction. In Georgia the seaboard line and other agencies circulate travelling libraries. In many states the Woman's Federation clubs do considerable work of this kind.

Colorado has two library commissions. Maryland also has two boards. Idaho's commission, which was established in 1901, has ceased to exist. Georgia has a nominal commission, receiving no funds and engaging in no activities. In Massachusetts the Woman's Educational Association has placed 43 travelling libraries in the field.

The second main agency of the state library commission has to do with the small libraries—how to promote their multiplication and how to secure their efficient administration. The term "small library" has a different meaning in the West than in the East, and thereby is largely determined the marked differences in conception of commission work which seems so strongly affected by geographical lines. In the East, where libraries are older and where direct state aid has stimulated the expansion of the shelflist, a collection of 5000 volumes is a small library. In the West, when the accession book becomes filled to that number, the library is regarded as worthy to rank in the first class—it is the library from 200 to 2000 volumes that is termed small. Something of the difficulties in the administration of these small libraries, especially in the newer communities, has been referred to earlier in this paper. The librarian, the trustees, and the members of the common council who hold the purse strings, must be included in the educative duties which devolve upon the commission staff. What an important element the small library represents in the library world of the United States may be gathered from the fact that, roughly grouped, five-sevenths of all the public libraries in this country contain less than 5000 volumes each, and but one-seventh in excess of 10,000 volumes. The work of the state commission is therefore one of tremendous significance. Its influence must be exerted to effect the proper organization of the small library and the technical equipment of the librarian, so as to ensure good business methods and wise extension work; to influence the selection of first class plans for new buildings, or at least the inclusion of certain essentials in the plan selected; to render such unobstrusive

but effective aid in book selection as to yield a good permanent nucleus for the larger book collection of the future; to strengthen the reference departments of the libraries by the inexpensive medium of a magazine clearing house; to secure the enactment of laws by the state legislature that seem best adapted to the immediate needs and conditions of the local libraries; to encourage the state library associations and local clubs to hold meetings that shall infuse *esprit de corps* among their members and a desire to emulate what is most progressive in library work; by means of model children's libraries, model reference libraries, binding exhibits, and other suggestive collections and exhibits, and of well edited instructive literature, such as bulletins, book lists, and similar publications, to bring forcibly to their attention what is newest and best in their profession which may be adopted, or adapted, for themselves.

The most important instructional work of the commission is that which centers in the library summer school. The most successful commissions are those which have realized this fact. During the past year the Indiana commission has conducted an interesting experiment in adding a normal school course designed to bring about closer relations between the library and the school. Wisconsin plans for next year a special course for teachers affiliated with the summer course of the University of Wisconsin. The commissions which now maintain summer schools of library training, or which plan to have them hereafter, include the following states: California, Indiana, Iowa, Maine, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Washington, and Wisconsin. The sole permanent school established by state funds, up to this year, is that conducted by the New York Department of Home Education. The Wisconsin legislature has now authorized an annual appropriation for a permanent school of library science to be conducted by the commission of that state, and it is proposed to begin it in September of next year.

In an admirable and comprehensive paper submitted by Miss Gratia Countryman, at the St. Louis Conference last year, the work of the individual commissions was given in extenso. The purpose of this hasty survey has been, therefore, to note rather the general plan of commission work as conducted by certain geographical groups of states, and the

trend of such work as indicated both by well-established policy generally followed and by experimental enterprises attempted by individual commissions. This has been done in a somewhat fragmentary manner, and it may be permitted to briefly summarize commission activities in the following tabular form:

Direct Aid
- State appropriations, usually in money.
- Traveling libraries:
  - general,
  - fiction,
  - juvenile,
  - study,
  - foreign groups.
- Clearing house, magazine gifts.
- Services in cataloging and organizing.

Advisory
- Counsel in preliminary efforts.
- Selection of librarian.
- Plans for buildings.
- Furnishings and decorations.
- Book selection:
  - special lists,
- Extension work:
  - schools,
  - clubs,
  - institutions,
  - stations and branches,
  - county readers,
  - classes for foreigners,
  - lectures,
  - story hour.

Instruction
- Summer school for library training.
- Institutes.
- Personal visitation.
- Publications:
  - bulletins,
  - book lists,
  - handbooks,
  - library literature.

Documents
Legislative reference library.
Check lists in printed form.
Bibliographies on current questions.
Young men's current topics clubs:
traveling library groups,
outlines for study.

Plans have been formulated for material extension of the publishing enterprises undertaken by the League of Library Commissions. Their work is significant of the newer trend in the library world to minimize expenditure and energy by means of coöperative enterprises subserving a common end. "Poole's index," the indexes and catalog cards of the A.L.A. Publishing Board, and similar notable achievements, illustrate what may be accomplished to aid libraries which can not hope to undertake such work independently. Much work, however, which libraries now perform for individual use, is a mere mechanical repetition and could be done more expeditiously, more economically and more advantageously in every way by joint arrangement. The library world has given to the business world, in the card system, a device which has revolutionized its methods, and in the saving of time and money has more than quadrupled its facilities. Until recently, however, librarians have been singularly dilatory in availing themselves of the advantages created by themselves.

In conclusion, a personal opinion as to the scope and attitude of state library commissions may be ventured. It is this: That commission will accomplish most within the sphere of its influence which seeks to exercise the least autocratic authority, but instills into its relation with the libraries of the state the unobtrusively persuasive rather than the domineeringly exacting element; which assumes the attitude not of a censor whose judgment is dreaded, but of a guide, counsellor, and friend whose advice is sought and followed because given in confidence. It will prove a mistake to invest any commission with powers so broad in scope that it becomes virtually a large library with branches scattered over the state. In all matters of moment affecting the administration of the small library, including the selection and purchase of books, the commission should endeavor

to exert a directing influence by suggestion and counsel, but not otherwise. Better that some mistakes should be made by the local library than that they should be avoided by having the commission do for them what they should do themselves.

In any system of education, mistakes are a part, and a necessary part; but, of course, these must be not too many, and there should be an avoidance of repetition. It is, therefore, an important and delicate problem for the commission to determine what not to do, as well as what to do, if the local libraries are to be brought to that degree of permanent efficiency with which initiative and independence are inseparable. It must be the purpose of the commission to help them to help themselves.

A MODEL LIBRARY COMMISSION LAW

Mr. Johnson Brigham, state librarian of Iowa, takes the Oregon commission law as his model rather than that of his own state, and comments upon the various sections. Mr. Brigham was born in New York state in 1846, and was educated at Hamilton college and Cornell university. He was an editor for sixteen years before becoming state librarian in 1898. He has been president of the National Association of State Libraries, member of the A.L.A Council, and has published several books, most of them historical, writing under the pseudonym Wolcott Johnson.

In attempting to give my views as to a model library commission law I shall first attempt a definition. A model commission law is not one with the most or the fewest words or sections, nor one in which the words are thrown together with the most of euphony, nor one which embodies an argument in favor of commissions: but is, rather, one that in fewest, simplest and most logically sequent words, phrases and sentences (1) creates the best working commission, (2) best empowers the commission to do its work, (3) most wisely confines the commission to the specific work which has called it into being, (4) best guards the public treasury against waste of public money by the commission, and (5) without extravagance or excess provides ample funds for the prosecution of the work of the commission, erring if at all, on the side of liberality and, finally, (6) providing for covering into the treasury all funds not needed.

My first thought was to use the Iowa Library Commission law as a basis for my model; but, on re-reading it I find that, nothwithstanding the attempt of four years ago to perfect that law—an attempt in as large measure as possible frustrated by legislative amendment—it is still faulty in several respects. I have therefore taken the latest embodiment of an effort to

formulate a model law: I refer to the act enacted by the legislature of the state of Oregon on February 9 of the present year—"An act to create the Oregon Library Commission and to provide for the conduct and expenses thereof, and to appropriate money therefor."

To begin with the title just read, I would add after the word "commission" the words "to define the powers and duties of said commission." I would make this addition that the title may conform to the rule in some states—which by the way, should be the rule in all—that the main purposes of a bill should be outlined in its title.

I see nothing to amend in the sequence of the several sections.

The first section creates the commission, lodging the appointing power and fixing the term of service.

The second outlines the work of the commission, here wisely using the word "may" instead of "shall," thus—improving on the laws of several other states—giving ample scope for the exercise of judgment by the commission but, of course, within the limits defined by the other sections of the law.

Section three defines the duties of the commission and of its secretary and limits the expenditure of money.

Section four relates to the commissioner's biennial report on library conditions and progress in the state, including an itemized statement of commission expenses, also covering the printing of the report and of such other matter as may be required.

Section five limits the salary of the secretary, and the necessary travelling and incidental expenses of the members of the commission and the secretary.

Section six makes the appropriation and provides that any balance not expended in any one year may be added to the expenditures for any ensuing year.

The only change I would suggest in this order would be to eliminate section five altogether, transferring the matter of salary to section three in which the matter of commission expenses is considered.

This would leave us a bill of five sections briefly summarized as follows: (1) Appointment; (2) Duties; (3) Organization and limitations; (4) Publication and printing; (5) Appropriation.

1. Taking up section one in detail, the Oregon commission provides that the governor shall appoint but one person as commissioner who, with the governor, superintendent of public instruction, president of the state university, and librarian of the Library Association of Portland, shall constitute the commission.

Here I would repeat the commonplace which no writer or speaker on library themes can wisely ignore, namely: that every state has its own variation from any general plan which may be developed, and the most we can claim for the best laid scheme is that it shall be a plan to work toward.

While the Oregon commission is fortunate in having as a member the librarian of the Library Association of Portland, and while I would not question the wisdom of the Oregon legislature in appointing the governor an *ex officio* member of the commission and leaving off the board the state librarian, yet I think a model library commission law should not be so constituted. I think it should not include any public librarian as an *ex officio* member, though I would regard a public librarian especially interested in and adapted to commission work as extra-eligible for appointment on a library commission.

I do not think the law should make the governor of the state a commissioner, because of the multiplicity of other interests with which the chief executive is charged.

In my judgment the commission should include the state librarian, who is—or should be—the official head and front of the library movement in the state so far as the state may lead in library activities.

In my model law I would have a commission of seven members, three of whom shall be members by virtue of the offices they hold, namely: the state librarian, for the reason given, the state superintendent of schools, as a connecting link between the commission and the schools, and the president of the state university, as a connecting link between the commission and higher education including university extension work. I would leave four positions open for appointment by the governor with an unwritten law that the four shall represent both the four quarters of the state geographically and the organizations most interested in libraries, such as the state library association and the state federation of women's clubs. These positions, out of politics, without salary and wholly honorary as they should

be, are not sought after by politicians, and any reasonable governor would be glad to receive suggestions and would be pleased to receive recommendations from duly constituted bodies of men and women interested. In the case of Oregon, without doubt the librarian of the Portland Library Association would be the first one recommended and appointed. The Iowa law declares that at least two of the four appointed commissioners shall be women. While I am in favor of women as commissioners, I think it best that they be appointed on their merits and not of necessity.

Section 2—which covers essentially the same ground as that covered by two sections of the Iowa commission law—defining the duties of the commission, appears to me to include about all that any good working commission should undertake in the interests of libraries and the state. These duties, epitomized, are: the giving of advice to the representatives of schools and public libraries, and the communities proposing to establish them—as to the means of establishing and maintaining public libraries, the classification and cataloging of books for such libraries, the purchase of travelling libraries, and the operation of the same within the state, in community libraries, schools, colleges, universities, library associations, study clubs, charitable and penal institutions, etc., such service to be rendered free of cost except for transportation under such conditions and rules as shall protect the state and increase the efficiency of the service. This section covers all that is necessary as to the publication of lists and circulars of information. It authorizes also that valuable adjunct, a clearing house for periodicals for free gift to local libraries. It also wisely authorizes but does not require, the creation and maintenance of a summer school for library instruction *if* such school be needed.

I would subtract nothing from this section; but would add, as a protection against the possible over-ambition of some future library commission or secretary, a clause which should limit the summer school for library instruction to persons either at present engaged in library work or supervision or already under engagement for future library work. I would make this change also as a protection to the commission and its secretary against insistence that pupils be permitted to enter the school with a view to fitting themselves for the mere possibility of future library service. The summer library school

as maintained by the state should be confined to those who are already committed to library work or active trusteeship and for the one purpose of increasing their efficiency. The purpose of such schools should be kept separate and distinct from that of the library school proper with its two years' course; the purpose of the one being to fit men and women for the profession of librarian, that of the other, simply to increase the efficiency of those already engaged in, or under engagement for, library service.

3 Section three provides for a chairman to be elected from the members thereof for a term of one year, and a secretary, not of its own number, to serve at the will of the commission under such conditions as it shall determine. I recommend that instead of chairman, the title of president be used, as one which commands somewhat more of respect for the executive head of the commission. If I, myself, were not a commission president, I think I would here recommend that the state librarian be *ex officio* president of the commission. I would incline to make this recommendation because the necessities of the situation, as viewed from the standpoint of my experience, almost compel the selection of the state librarian. The complimentary election of any other member would be to most secretaries a serious embarrassment, in that any business-like plan of keeping accounts, auditing bills, recommending purchases, etc., requires the approval and signature of the president, and this would be accompanied with vexatious and sometimes disastrous delay if the president were not immediately accessible and if the state were not entitled to the president's time.

The Oregon law says that the expenses of the commission and of its officers, when approved by the chairman shall be certified under oath to the secretary of state. Of course the machinery of such executive work is different in different states. In Iowa such certification would be made to the state auditor instead of the secretary of state. With us the machinery of financing the commission is made unnecessarily cumbersome by provisions compelling the president and the secretary of the commission to certify under oath to the executive council, consisting of the governor, the secretary of state, the state auditor and the state treasurer. These in turn approve the bills before they go to the state auditor for payment—cumbersome machinery which is either perfunctory, as is ordinarily the case,

or an embarrassment and annoyance to the commission and a needless burden to men without detailed knowledge of or special interest in commission work. If the members of the commission are devoid of common honesty, they should summarily be removed from office. If their judgment is not as good as that of men wholly outside the range of commission activities, then there should be an overhauling of the commission.

The Oregon law fixes the salary of the secretary of the commission. My judgment is that the commission should fix the secretary's salary and that the same should be paid from the appropriation. Commission laws usually limit the outgo for travelling expenses, and the limitation may be wise; but my own judgment drawn from experience is that if the limit happens to be too small it is an embarrassment, and if too large it is superfluous. No commissioner, no secretary, worthy to serve the state, will be disposed to expend money for mere junketing. In our Iowa commission, though we go whenever and wherever we deem it necessary to go, our annual limit of travel expenditure has not as yet been reached.

4. I have no serious criticism to make on section four of the Oregon law, for there is nothing in it except directions as to the printing of the biennial report and other printed matter required by the commission and the amount of money to be expended annually for printing. This sum would widely vary in different states, and I think it would be better to let the necessities of the commission, not the statute, fix the limit of expenditure in this direction.

5. As to section five, I will simply make the commonplace remark that a sum necessary to run a commission in one state may be excessive in another and may be repressive in another. Another criticism occurs to me—one which I am not likely to urge upon an Iowa legislature, but which impresses me as in some respects for the best interests of the state. The Oregon law says "any balance not expended in any one year may be added to the expenditure for any ensuing year." The question of unexpended balances is one which admits of a very good argument on either side; but my judgment, as expressed away from home, and independently of the immediate interests of the commission over which I preside, is that a balance not expended in any one year should be covered into the treasury. This may work a hardship in some particular cases; but the

effect of such a measure would be to make it easier for commissioners to obtain liberal legislation; while unexpended balances at the end of the year, or at the end of the biennial period, are a constant invitation to the watch-dogs of the treasury who are always found on the committee on retrenchment and reform and the committee on appropriations.

THE WORK OF LIBRARY EXTENSION IN IOWA

Miss Alice Sarah Tyler was secretary of the Iowa Library Commission when she spoke at the meeting of the Illinois Library Association in 1904 on her work, introducing it with a brief summary of the general purpose and methods of commission work, and placing the most emphasis on the importance of establishing libraries in towns where none exist and enlarging the work of those already established. A sketch of Miss Tyler will be found on page 109 of this volume.

The aim and purpose of library commissions have become so familiar to library workers that it would seem almost safe before such an audience as this to assume an acquaintance with the reasons for their existence. Nevertheless, as there may possibly be those here who are not familiar with what is being done in a number of states by library commissions, it may be well to briefly review their purpose and methods.

State encouragement and supervision of public library interests have come to be recognized as important in the furthering of the system of public education. Massachusetts was the first state to see the importance of fostering and encouraging this interest, which has much to do in developing a sound and intelligent citizenship, and therefore the Massachusetts legislature created a library commission in 1890. The chief duty of this commission was to use every effort to make good books accessible to all the people of that great commonwealth, by means of free public libraries. Since that time, 19 other states have seen the importance of library development and have secured legislation providing for library commissions. The states now having library commissions are: Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Vermont, Wisconsin, Ohio, Georgia, New Jersey, Maine, Indiana, Kansas, Colorado, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Iowa, Idaho, Washington, Delaware, Nebraska.

"Differing materially in composition and in methods, their common aim is to inspire communities with a desire for library service, to foster zeal in literary work, to aid by advice and example, to simplify methods and act as an agency for the application of public spirit and private bounty in the direction of library interests."

It has been seen that as our public school system evolved, it was necessary to give direction and encouragement to it. This is done through the Department of public instruction in each state. In a similar though in a much smaller way, the library commission in each state is to give direction and encouragement to the library interests. "No thoughtful man can question that it is a supreme concern to provide for our people the best of the literature of power which inspires and builds character, and of the literature of knowledge which informs and builds prosperity. This can be done effectively and economically only through free public libraries. A limited number can buy or hire their books, but experience has proven that unless knowledge is as free as air or water, it is fearfully handicapped, and the state can not afford even the smallest obstacle to remain between any of its citizens and the desire for either inspiration or information."

A majority of the states have laws providing for the establishment and support of free public libraries, but in many communities the people need to be encouraged to take advantage of the provisions of the law.

In Iowa the library commission was created by an act of the twenty-eighth general assembly, March 20, 1900. The commission consists of seven members, three *ex-officio* and four appointed by the governor. These elect a secretary not of their number to attend to the activities of commission work. The rapidly increasing duties of the first two years tested the law and showed the necessity for certain changes. The traveling library work which had been in charge of the state library was seen to be so closely related to the work of the library commission that it was thought desirable by all concerned that it should be transferred to the commission. Therefore the twenty-ninth general assembly revised the law, provided for this transfer and increased the appropriation.

The activities of the commission have varied as the demands of the work have required. The secretary

through correspondence and personal visits has become acquainted with library conditions in the state, and every effort is made to encourage all cities in the state (of over 2000 inhabitants), to take advantage of the law providing for a municipal tax. The demands upon the secretary include many phases of work, among which are the following: Aiding in the preliminary plans for the submission of a library tax to the popular vote; assisting boards of trustees and librarians in organizing libraries for a business-like administration; advice regarding library records—classification, shelf-list, and catalog; aiding in securing a competent organizer for properly organizing a library according to present methods; conferring with library trustees regarding plans for new buildings, with special reference to interior arrangements, that provide supervision and economical administration; addressing teachers' meetings, women's clubs, public meetings, etc., on library subjects; selection of books; supervision of traveling libraries; direction of the Summer library training school; keeping accurate records of the work of the commission and all expenditures; correspondence on many subjects related to the above-mentioned activities. As new needs arise, new forms of service will be developed as far as means permit.

Of the many activities which naturally grow out of the systematic effort of a state to advance library interests, those most generally accepted are the traveling library (Iowa has 12,000v.), a periodical exchange or clearing-house, some method of instruction for librarians (usually by a summer school), the free use of printed matter for giving publicity to the work and for furnishing library information, and aggressive library work in general.

Extension in the sense of enlarging, widening or expanding at once conveys the thought of growth, and while the term library extension is a large and inclusive term and really covers all the activities of a state library commission, which exists for the purpose of extending the library interests of the state, it is also applied more particularly to the work of establishing local libraries in towns where no such institution exists and in aiding in the development and enlargement of the local library after it is established. In this sense therefore library extension takes on a specific meaning as one of the most important activities of a library commission, and it is this particular line of work that, it seems to me, needs to be emphasized.

A public collection of books for the free use of the people should exist in every town or city. Believing that such a collection of books, wisely used, has great educational value and has a far-reaching influence in molding the character of the young people of the community, the state has provided that such an institution may be established and maintained by taxation. One state, New Hampshire, provides that it must. Many communities, however, are indifferent to the possibilities and needs of such an institution, and some method needs to be adopted whereby these are brought to realize the advantages which are easily within their reach. Here the need of the aggressive work of the state library commission becomes at once apparent. The representative of the commission (secretary, organizer, visitor or whatever term may be used) can by various methods gain the interest and confidence of the people of a community and there are usually a few people in every community who are ready to take the initiative in a movement of this sort. In Iowa an unfailing source of strength in work of this sort is the club woman and in most of the towns they give the first impetus to the work.

It should be borne in mind that encouragement and help from the state, as represented by a state library commission representative, carries with it a certain force in a community, the value of which we should not overlook. Where a few people have at first to combat the indifference and doubt of a majority of the citizens, and have to create public sentiment, it means a great deal to feel back of their feeble efforts the recognition and encouragement of the state as represented by a commission. The local movement at once takes on dignity. Furthermore, the mere fact of some one outside the community coming to talk on the value of a library develops an interest which at first may be only curiosity.

A central bureau or center for library information and suggestion is certainly a source of strength and encouragement to those in the state who are trying to develop this interest in the establishment of public libraries in their communities, and an active field worker who shall visit these communities and push the work of library extension is certainly an important factor. How shall such a center be maintained, and how shall such aggressive field work be done unless there is a permanent income for its support? So far, the most reliable plan for thus providing for supervision and development is through a state

appropriation. The name commission may be questioned from prejudice against it. There may be other ways, but this is the method which gives stability and permanence to the work of library extension in Iowa.

The lines most definitely before the Iowa Library Commission in library extension are: (1), encouraging and aiding in towns where no libraries exist; and (2), improving conditions and raising standards in the older libraries by coöperation with librarians and trustees in introducing modern methods; (3), aiding in the selection of books; (4), advising regarding plans for library buildings. Incidentally these duties overlap with other activities which definitely bear upon bringing about related results, such as the Summer library school, publications of the commission of various kinds, etc. which give instruction and information.

In conclusion let me give you just a glimpse of one week of field work in library extension out of my own experience. The first week of this month I visited seven towns (Waterloo, Osage, Charles City, Nashua, Waver, Clarksville and Cedar Falls), driving 12 miles to reach one of them; I met four library boards, conferred with two building committees, made one evening address in a small town of about one thousand inhabitants where club women were trying to start a library, and inspected the libraries in five of these towns, conferring with the librarian in every instance, in one town there being two libraries, one in a state institution. In every place I was welcomed most cordially and my regret always is that I can not give more time to field work. It pays.

THE COMMISSION AND THE LOCAL LIBRARY

This lecture was given by Clara Frances Baldwin at the Summer Library Conference conducted by the Wisconsin Free Library Commission at Madison, July 12-26, 1911. She takes the same attitude toward commission work that Mr. Legler expresses in the article just quoted, and treats it very effectively.

Miss Baldwin was born in 1871, took her bachelor's degree at the University of Minnesota in 1892 and was cataloger in the Minneapolis Public Library in 1892-1899. She was secretary of the Minnesota Public Library Commission in 1900-1919 and since that date has been director of libraries for the Minnesota Department of Education.

The function of the library commission in establishing and organizing libraries has been generally recognized, but the limits of its field in relation to the administration of the local library are not as clearly defined. Perhaps this is due somewhat to the fact that establishment and re-organization has absorbed most of the time and energy of commissions in the newer growing states where libraries are springing up almost as fast as commissions can keep track of them. Then, too, methods of organization have become standardized, there are definite laws under which libraries must be established, and technical systems are quite generally agreed upon. The assistance commissions can give in technical matters is recognized and appreciated, but the assistance which may be rendered in solving problems of administration is somewhat less tangible.

There have been those among commission workers who maintained that the commission had no part in the administration of the local library, that it should be merely a silent partner, distributing state funds to a limited extent, as a reward

of merit for the purchase of approved books, and there to end, assuming that if the library is once established, and suitable books are added from year to year, there is no need of further supervision by state authorities. But experience has shown that the establishment and technical organization of libraries is only the beginning and that "advisory work with libraries is limited only by the resourcefulness of the commission itself." This work has developed by meeting the needs of libraries, and librarians and trustees may help the commission by making known their needs and calling upon the commission for help in all sorts of problems.

The ideal commission, as it appears to me, should be a guide, counsellor and friend to all library workers in the state, never dictating or offering untimely criticism, but tactfully maintaining an attitude of helpfulness, serviceableness and understanding which results in a mutual feeling of perfect confidence. This relation manifestly cannot exist without thorough knowledge on the part of the commission, first of the librarian and library board, then of the resources of the local library, and furthermore of local conditions, and this, of course, implies frequent visits from members of the commission staff.

Librarians should do all in their power to make the visitors welcome, and these visits shall never be "visitations" to be dreaded by the librarian.

Taking up some of the concrete problems of administration, as they have been discussed in previous conferences, let us consider what library commissions have done and may do to help the local library solve these problems. The first problem for consideration in library administration is that of finances and the budget, and here the first question which arises is how to apportion the funds. The commission collects reports and statistics which furnish valuable information for comparison with other libraries. Interested trustees find great satisfaction in working out such comparisons, and librarians may help by keeping careful records, and above all by sending reports promptly. Statistics are usually a bugbear, but often serve a useful purpose and may sometimes prove of value to your own library as well as to other libraries. Another problem which frequently confronts the library board is how to increase the library fund. Library commissions have done much to educate public sentiment in favor of larger appropriations for

library purposes. The recent Wisconsin bulletin on library appropriations is full of practical suggestions. In dealing with city councils, county or township boards, comparative statistics are again of value, and the presence of the state officer with an authoritative statement regarding the library law is often all that is needed to carry the day for the library.

To towns which must raise money to supplement the fund raised by taxation, the commission offers many suggestions gleaned from experiences of other towns.

Business methods have been sadly neglected in the administration of many libraries, but commissions have furnished uniform blanks for accounts, to simplify the keeping of records and encourage the use of better business methods. The importance of this cannot be over estimated, when it comes to seeking increased appropriations and a clear, business-like statement of expenditures and results obtained will often accomplish more than the most convincing argument as to the value of the library.

In the problem of government and service, library commissions have helped the local library by constantly striving to raise the standard of library service throughout the state.

The first means to this end is the summer school, which has not only taught better methods, but inspired librarians with a broader view of the possibilities of their work. The commissions have further strived to educate boards of trustees, leading them gently up to the idea of trained service and recommending the right person when opportunity comes.

This educating process is continually going on at state and district meetings, and as a higher ideal of the library's place in the community is established, the dignity of the librarians' office will be recognized, and vice versa—as better service is rendered by the library to the community at large, so will the dignity of the institution be augmented.

In the relation of commissions to librarians and trustees we have one of the must difficult points in library administration. In general, librarians and trustees work in harmony for the best interests of the library, but unfortunately there is sometimes, to use a gentle phrase of a well-beloved librarian of the old school, a little "lack of sympathy" and we find librarian and board working at cross purposes. Doubtless this is due to the fact that there is "as much human nature in library trustees as

there is in librarians, if not more," and librarians, perhaps on account of over-zeal, fail to win the support of their board in their favorite schemes. In such cases the commission may be extremely useful as a sort of buffer, or safety valve. The commission will endeavor to cultivate patience in the over-zealous librarian and may often clear up misunderstandings by a tactful handling of the situation. These situations are sometimes a little disconcerting to the commission worker, as when board members take the commission worker aside and ask her to correct certain faults in the librarian, which are evidently due to the fixed habits of some 50 odd years. Remember that commission workers are only human beings after all, and while often effective as a high court of arbitration, do not set them impossible tasks. I know of no better way of establishing friendly relations between librarians, trustees and commissions than through the board meeting called to meet the commission visitor and discuss informally the affairs of the library. Librarians should make every effort to get the board together, ask questions and give the trustees an opportunity to feel more strongly the vital connection which should exist between the commission and the local library board. Sometimes a social cup of tea is not out of order, and does much to establish this ideal relation.

But it is in the broader social and civic work of the library that co-operation with the commission is most needed. In a paper on The Trend of Commission work, read before the Bretton Woods conference, Mr. Hadley, then Secretary of the Indiana Commission, pointed out the need of real co-operation when he said that we should have "not simply a friendly attitude or theory of work, but a positive and vital connection between the commission and outside forces and between the commission and every library within its state."

A newspaper in a remote community recently recorded that the people of a certain district had established "a state circulating library for the benefit of those up there who are unable to secure literature to inculcate their mental faculties to keep abreast of the advancing march of civilization." In spite of the dizziness of this editorial flight, there is a certain stimulus in the words, and the library which is keeping abreast of the advancing march of civilization must bring its community into

touch with all the great movements of the present for social and civic betterment. But the librarian in the small town does not easily come in touch with the agencies for promoting these movements and the commission should be the connecting link through which these forces are brought to the libraries and through the libraries to the people.

There are in every state, boards such as the state board of health, the forestry and labor commissions, which are working for the conservation of human life and natural resources. The publications of these boards should not only be sent to every library, but their value should be made known to the public. There are state associations, not official, such as the Anti-tuberculosis society, the Audubon society and others of a similar nature. All of these have literature for free distribution, which should be brought to the people through the local library. Furthermore, there are national associations, such as the American civic association, the peace society and our own American library association, whose resources should be made available. The commission should serve to bring the local library into communication with all these state and national organizations, not only by publishing lists of available publications, but often distributing such material, and seeing to it that it is brought to the attention of the public. The commission not only supplies literature, but should be able to furnish lecturers, or at least put the librarian into communication with such.

The recent publication of the Wisconsin Commission on "The library and social movements" is an important contribution to this work, furnishing a complete list of material on this subject, which may be obtained at little or no expense.

Mr. F. A. Hutchins in an address before the Minnesota Library Association several years ago drew attention to the enlarging field of the small library and emphasized the need of "closer co-operation and co-ordination of all of our great educational forces, which are now wasting energy in duplicating methods and systems of popular education."

The ideal library commission seeks a vitalized co-operation with every educational agency in the state, the University, the Agricultural Extension Dept., the public schools and the entire educational system.

The service of a library commission should be measured not by the numbers of libraries established, not even by the

number of books available to the reading public, but by the efficiency of library service throughout the state. The ideal commission then will not be satisfied when every town of a certain population has a library (although this gives much ground for genuine satisfaction) not even when these libraries are well housed, well chosen, well organized and economically administered, but must help to keep always before the librarians and trustees a broader vision of the library's possibilities until each library becomes a real factor in its community in "the fight against ignorance, dullness, selfishness and materialism" and in the development of a higher ideal of citizenship so that each community however remote will realize that it may "keep abreast of the advancing march of civilization" and have a share in the world wide movements for social regeneration.

TREND OF LIBRARY COMMISSION WORK

This group of articles is appropriately closed with one presented by Mr. Chalmers Hadley at a general session of the Bretton Woods Conference of the American Library Association in 1909. Mr. Hadley, who was then secretary of the Indiana Library Commission, speaks in an inspiring way of the whole field of commission work past and present and future. Mr. Hadley was educated at Earlham College, Indiana, and the New York State Library School. For several years before entering the library field he was in newspaper work. He left the Indiana Library Commission to become secretary of the American Library Association and in 1911 became librarian of the Denver Public Library. He was president of the American Library Association in 1919, is a member of the American Library Institute, and has held many other library and civic positions.

The comparative newness of library commission work makes any estimate of its tendencies of little value, for thus far its daily demands have called for immediate action rather than for reflection regarding the future.

The question of "trend of library commission work" assumes added interest when considered with the assertions of some library workers, that library commissions are of a temporary nature, with their end already in view. Some idea of discontinuance may be given by the name "commission," which sometimes has designated bodies appointed to superintend some temporary activity. Whatever the opinion of others may be, to commission workers, burdened with duties, and with new ones constantly needing attention, any assertion of temporariness receives little consideration; for the commission's advisory work with libraries alone, seems limited only by the resourcefulness of the commission itself.

Should it cease to operate in any state, it would probably be because a comparison of work to be done with the ridiculously small appropriation frequently made with which to do it would indicate the futility of any possible effort.

The original idea of commission work seemed to be, primarily, the establishment of new public libraries; but while libraries established have shown a marvelous increase in number, especially in commission states, this is only one of many activities. If commissions exist simply to increase the number of public libraries, then library commissions may well consider themselves of temporary existence, for the advent of every new library would toll a day less of official and professional life.

In the state of Massachusetts there is a library in every town. In Wisconsin, there is not a city of more than 3,000 inhabitants without a library, and only five cities exceeding 2,000 people without such an institution. Of 88 cities in Indiana, 69 have public libraries, and similar conditions exist in many other states. But the cessation of library commission work with the establishment of public libraries would be nearly as blameworthy as the desertion of a new born babe by a supposedly interested parent.

With public opinion and the assistance of Mr Carnegie's money, the establishment of libraries in a new field is comparatively easy work. In fact, the commission worker frequently has to play the role of conservative when he detects an emotionalism in a public library campaign akin to that in a camp-meeting revival; for unless the situation be handled in a calm, professional way, the results may be as unfortunate to the library as they sometimes are to the repentant but lonesome sinner who has been swept to unsupportable heights.

One unsuccessful library frequently will attract more public attention and comment than six successful ones. Every library which fails in its mission is a stumbling block to library development in general, and if a commission considers its work ended with the establishment of libraries alone, in my opinion it should move with exceeding care in this field of activity.

An important step in library commission, or library extension development, was taken in 1893 when the state of

New York saw the possibilities of traveling libraries with sufficient clearness to provide books for communities lacking library advantages; and most if not all states which have library commissions or extension departments now send out these libraries. Not only are they lent for the personal use of readers, but they are used as entering wedges for the establishment of tax supported public libraries in communities able to continue them.

The period following 1893 was the formative one, the blocking-out stage in commission activities, and the work showed a decided change. A glimpse into the future seemed to stir most commissions alike, and in addition to the supervision of traveling libraries and the establishment of new public libraries, the work began to be of more definite service to public libraries already in operation. It soon included in its activities the training of library workers through summer library schools and institutes, and the establishment of clearing houses for periodicals and numerous other interests.

For the last five years, commission work, even in widely separated states, has tended toward greater uniformity. Local conditions will always exist, but the scope and methods of work, whether in charge of a commission, the state library or some other special department, have been getting more alike. Any difference in scope is due chiefly to the size of appropriations for carrying on the work.

It is this agreement in method which shows the present trend of the work. Whether conscious of a trend or not, commissions will meet it if they successfully do the work of every day; for the trend comes in meeting the needs of libraries and is not a direction given the work from the commission office itself. No radical change is imminent, for the trend is simply along the line of increased usefulness through greater co-operation.

Co-operation is no new word in commission work. For several years there has been sufficient co-operation between the various states for the exchange of benefits among the library commissions. But the co-operation which seems necessary at present, is not simply a friendly attitude or theory of work, but a positive and vital connection between the commission and outside forces, and between the commission

and every library within its state. With a definite and intelligent study of co-operative possibilities and a willingness to merge commission activities with those of individual libraries, results should be unusual.

Frequently in library co-operation the popular conception of results seems to be based largely on a financial economy in the loan and use of books. Suggestions have been made which indicate a belief that a library field can be developed as a corporation would exploit an oil field. The trust methods of the business world, involving as they do the sacrifice of the individual plant for the benefit of centralized interests and supposed financial economy, cannot be used in this proposed commission co-operation, for in it, economy, if there be any, will accrue from better work accomplished in the individual library for the same appropriation.

The trend which seems evident will not be so apparent in the newer commission states where library commission work will continue to take its usual course of blazing the way. There will be public library opinion to arouse and to guide when awake. New commissions will block out their work through legislation and then protect it from hostile attack. The establishment of public libraries and the construction of new buildings will continue to be of paramount importance, however, every new library established means so much work finished; and in commission states at present, libraries are springing into existence at a rate exceeding that at which towns become able to support them through increased property valuation. Fewer new libraries naturally mean fewer new buildings to construct and fewer untrained librarians to instruct, but they mean also, more opportunity and greater necessity for closer co-operation between commissions and the libraries they have helped to set going.

An increase in the number of public libraries in successful operation in a state will also affect the traveling libraries as well. Many years will elapse in most states before different methods in lending traveling libraries will be necessary, and no changes may be needed in some; but in states where public libraries in cities and towns are reaching out to county support and service as in California, and to township

support and service as in Indiana, new adjustments must follow. These will be welcomed, not regretted by library commissions, for none should live for itself except as its existence is a benefit to libraries in general, and the township and county libraries sending out books within their own territory will have some decided advantages. A librarian in personal touch with her reading public, whether it embrace city or county, will have wide scope in selecting her books. Her personal touch will acquaint her with her public's exact needs and she will be better able to meet them. Traveling libraries circulated from a township or county center will decrease their expense to most readers, but best of all they will mean another strong bond between the librarian and her people, and between a public and a local institution which stands for intelligence, progress and happiness.

Library commissions will continue to use traveling libraries as a first step in library organization, and to supply books to the thousands who lack all public library facilities; but the greatest care will have to be used in the future by commissions and state libraries in sending traveling libraries into public library territory. Central state offices have lent books in public library communities when the cost of postage to the reader has equaled the original purchase price of the book which should have been on the shelves of the local library in the first place. Commissions will continue to lend books to struggling libraries and to supply them with books too expensive for local purchase, but fewer officers, whether of the library commission or some other department of the state will mistake competition for co-operation, and commit the professional sin of standing between any librarian and her public.

A cursory glance over library legislation for the last few years will show how library activities have become centralized more and more in the state-supported library institutions. One wonders whether this is because of a general desire among library workers of the state, or because the state legislators, with unexpected clear vision as to library needs, have agreed as to the advantages of such centralization, or because of personal pride and professional ambition in a state-supported office. Proper professional ambition is laudable, certain library legislation absolutely necessary, and

no state institution needs more careful legislation for its existence than a library commission.

Its comparatively recent appearance in library affairs is responsible for the fact that many public officials do not thoroughly understand commission work. A library commission, separate from the state library, has no array of books, furniture and staff with which to impress a legislator with the magnitude of its work; and aside from statistical information regarding the circulation of traveling libraries and of library visits made, the results of library commission work frequently must be intangible, at least, to some doubting Thomas who calls at the commission office.

A library commission can no more state what it has accomplished for libraries, than a board of health can specify the cases of typhoid fever it has prevented in a given time. Because of this limitation, legislation must be the backbone and frame which supports the commission body. But state libraries and commissions must avoid the danger of extending this backbone until it becomes a legislative shell, encasing the body to the detriment of growth, and so cumbering it that activity and flexibility become impossible. Successful library commissions cannot rely on a legislative "thou shalt and shalt not" in their relations with individual libraries, but must depend on a helpful, tactful attitude and service which result in a mutual feeling of perfect confidence.

A commission must be sufficiently effective to make itself the center of library activity in its state, and one which depends on legislation alone to gain this position, is in grave danger of being little more than a machine. In the work which is upon us no library commission or state library doing commission work can successfully devote its attention to admiring the oiled workings of its own machinery. While we may praise its frictionless movements and are impressed by the sound of mighty forces pent up within, let us recognize that in the hum of a legislatively constructed machine at least some of the noise may come from an exhaust pipe.

I believe that in the older commission states at least, necessary legislation applying to the central library office has nearly reached its maximum. Today there seems to be more interest in legislation which directly develops individual libraries throughout the state. Growth in the individual library

from within is much to be preferred to hot-house forcing by applications of legislative steam heat from a great central plant.

Library commissions have always stood for increased efficiency on the part of the librarian, and they are tending more and more to stand also for increased consideration for the librarian. The call to overworked, underpaid librarians has been to strive for "love of the work," but commissions while realizing the value of this attitude, are trying to place the work on a professional rather than a sentimental basis.

An awakened conscience is apparent, also, regarding the frequently neglected library trustee. During the coming year, one library commission has planned to hold trustees' institutes as distinct from librarians' institutes; and another commission is considering the advisability of regularly issuing a publication for the use of the trustees.

While trend is not synonymous with revolution, and the development of library commission work doubtless will continue along general lines already laid down, the next few years should witness a wonderful growth in all commission states. It may be said in fairness that commissions have not been derelict in the duties imposed upon them in the past, but they themselves are recognizing that the methods of the past cannot be depended upon entirely for the future. The time has come for commissions to realize fully, as most public libraries are realizing, that technical training, buildings and even books themselves are but means to an end, and this end is more than the polishing of tools or of halos. It is the diminution of ignorance, unhappiness and isolation, through the broadening and quickening of life.

It is strange how a community and even an entire town may go on its way thinking and living as its founders did, frequently unconscious of the great uplifting forces at work all about. But it is not so strange after all when we remember that the protectors of public health, the conservators of our natural resources, the advocates of better municipal government, the beautifiers of cities, the guardians of neglected children, the workers in organized charities and juvenile courts—this host of unselfish, public spirited people—confine their work mainly to our larger cities and leave the smaller places neglected.

The librarian and her local board may realize the respon-

sibility for making the library a vital force in the community, but too frequently they feel helpless to do this, for the great vitalizing influences seem too remote for availability. These influences fly high, but the library commissions propose to play the part of Franklin, and catch these forces which flash among the clouds and conduct their sparks to the small library bottles all over the state.

We have had library displays showing the wetness of water and the dryness of dust,—all helpful to the incredulous—but the library commission can co-operate with the state board of health, and through exhibits, speakers and books, join in the fight against disease and suffering. It can work with the state fish and game commission and increase the understanding and respect for animal life about us. Associated with the state board of forestry and with the state geologist, the commission can help libraries to teach the proper use of natural resources and how to protect them for future generations. Better ideas of home economics, of sanitary surroundings and of increasing the earnings from the farm will follow if library commissions will bring the state agricultural college with its varied resources into touch with the small community. Similarly, through co-operation with landscape artists and architects the commission can demonstrate the economy in beauty.

Whatever the agent, library commissions can co-operate with it and work through the individual library by means of popular lectures, public exhibitions and, best of all, by means of books. In any community the commission can use its traveling libraries to advantage, send pictures and books to supplement the local collection, select books for purchase by the library and act as a bureau of bibliography in compiling reading lists for public use when these duties cannot be performed by the local librarian. This last should be a most important work, for the ordinary bibliography issued by the large library is no more adapted for use in the very small one than its building plans would be.

But not only can the commission co-operate with forces within the different states for the benefit of individual libraries and communities, it can join hands with many national agencies whose aims are similar. The Bureau of education at Washington or some other national office is losing splen-

did opportunities to co-operate with library commissions and with the League of library commissions by not keeping information to date regarding new library activities and conditions in each state. Unfortunately library co-operation of this kind in the past seems to have been confined chiefly to spasmodic collections of library statistics.

Although much work has been devoted to laying the foundations of library commission work, even greater perseverance and devotion will be required to realize all its possibilities. The success or failure of a commission will depend upon its ability to get behind the individual library and will be disclosed by library conditions throughout the particular state in which the commission's work and resources have been expended. My personal belief is that success will most easily be achieved by the commission which has the least official connection with or oversight of any single library in the state, so that undivided time, impartial attention and effort can be given to all public libraries of the state as a whole. Free from ambitions for any single institution but with unselfish loyalty to all, the future development of commission work should show more splendid results than ever marked the past. In the recent words of a library commission secretary, "we must now look forward to the period of perfecting, developing, spiritualizing. We must look for results in the finer culture of the community, in individual lives, in character, in a development of living conditions more worth while, through a vitalized co-operation which shall bring our libraries into touch with the great social regenerative forces of the land, and through them to the people."

COUNTY LIBRARIES

"Over half the population of the United States is extra-urban living outside the limits of cities and towns and therefore outside the limits of the supply of reading matter which is now so readily accessible to most urban residents. To get reading into the hands of this large part of our population is a problem. One of the best plans offered for its solution is the County Library System." This was a statement made by the Committee on the Enlarged Program of the American Library Association in its report of December 31, 1919.

The articles selected show that this phase of library organization has come entirely within the last twenty-five years, largely within the last fifteen and is still one of the important problems of library extension.

LATEST STAGE OF LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT

Some little controversy occured over the claim of the Van Wert County Library for first place in the county library field. Money was given by J. S. Brumbach for the erection of a building under condition that the county should equip and maintain the library. This the county contracted to do by taxation, a law having been passed authorizing such taxation, and the library was founded in 1899. Meanwhile the organization of the Cincinnati Public Library had been changed in 1898 so that it was supported by the whole of Hamilton County and open to residents of the county. This was made possible by the passage of a special library law. It was reported at the time that the Norris-Jewett library for the county of Trenton, Missouri had been started in 1894, and the records show that the Warren County library, Monmouth, Illinois, was founded in 1870.

Ohio certainly led in the passage of laws making the support of such libraries by the county legal. Following is a brief description of the Brumbach library by Ernest Irving Antrim, one of its trustees. Mr. Antrim is a son-in-law of the donor. He is a graduate of Depauw University, took a Ph.D. at Gottingen University, Germany, and in 1912 represented Van Wert County in the Ohio Constitutional Convention.

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Those who have followed the deliberations of our national, State, and district associations, during the past few years, have noted that the one absorbing problem has been: How can the people, young and old, be best reached and most benefited by our libraries? The problem of reaching the people of our towns and cities has been in a very great degree solved. The problem of reaching the people in the rural districts, first conceived, and

partially solved, by the distinguished librarian Melvil Dewey, in the traveling-library movement inaugurated by him a few years ago, has been nearly solved by the late J. S. Brumback, donor of America's first county library. As the Brumback Library is a new institution and represents a new stage of our library development, I shall give a brief description of its modus operandi.

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The method adopted by the Brumback Library to bring its books to all parts of Van Wert County is easily explained. The library itself—which represents a value of $50,000, receives an annual income of fully $6,500, and has a stack-room capacity, when all available room shall be used, of 100,000 volumes—is located in the city of Van Wert, the county seat of Van Wert County. Fortunately the city is located in the center of the county, which contains in round numbers 275,000 acres and has a population of nearly 35,000. Besides the central library there are ten branch libraries, which are so situated that every resident of the county is in easy access of the library itself or of one of its branches. The ten branches have an unique feature in the form of what may be called a traveling-library system, and are also in direct communication with the central library. The ten branch libraries are placed in the more important stores or offices of the villages of the county, where they are excellently managed, by virtue of the fact that those having charge of them are given nominal salaries.

To start the traveling-library system, the library trustees purchased 1,000 books, most of them entirely new, which were sent to the ten branch libraries, 100 to each branch. After keeping its 100 books two months, each branch sends them to one of the other nine branches, and receives a second 100 from one of its neighbors to take their place. So the books pass from branch to branch until each branch has had the thousand books, when they are returned to the central library, and cataloged. In the meantime, another 1,000 books have been purchased and put in readiness to repeat the experience of the first thousand.

I have already said that the branch libraries are in direct communication with the central library. By this I mean that all persons securing books from the central library through any of its branches are subject to no other rules than those

imposed by the central library. Cards can be had from the central library only; but persons holding cards may secure books anywhere in the county. The more important papers of the county have published lists of all the books contained in the library and continue to publish the titles of new books as soon as they have been cataloged.

During the few months since the Brumback Library opened its doors to the people of Van Wert County it has been conclusively proved to be a very gratifying success. Unusual interest is manifested, and books go every day to readers in even the most remote townships. It is the purpose of the Brumback Library to accomplish in Van Wert County what some of our more progressive city libraries are already accomplishing in the cities. First and foremost, the interests of the whole county are considered by the trustees and librarian in every move they make. The county's various business, social, and intellectual activities are promoted by selecting the latest and most authoritative works on all subjects, and bringing them to the attention of those who most appreciate them. The tastes and inclinations of every class of people are studied; and as far as these pertain to the province of a library and are deemed practicable they are gratified. As the great university strives to adapt itself to the many who come under its instruction and also to raise them to a higher plane of usefulness, so the Brumback Library strives to adapt itself to the people of Van Wert County, and to raise them to a higher level. If in the years to come the Brumback Library can be credited with having made homes happier through its influence, the purpose of its founder will have been attained.

A COUNTY LIBRARY

The development of a county library in Washington County, Maryland, seems to have been the normal result of the county as the unit, in the south. The service rendered was pioneer work, and the method employed, that of distribution by book wagon, was of much interest to librarians all over the country. Miss Mary Lemist Titcomb, librarian, who presented the following account at the American Library Association meeting in 1909, took charge of this library during its organization in 1901. She was born in Farmington, N.H. in 1857, was for ten years librarian of the Rutland, Vermont, Free Library. From 1899 to 1901 as secretary of the Vermont Library Commission she organized and cataloged several new libraries in the state. She has been chairman of the Library Extension Division of the General Federation of Women's Clubs and active in other local and national affairs.

The special library of which I am to tell you today is the Washington county free library at Hagerstown, the county seat, in Western Maryland. Nine years ago, when the subject of a library was mooted, the men most interested in the matter and who afterwards formed the Board of trustees, were a German Reformed minister, two lawyers, a banker, a paper maker, a farmer and a merchant. They knew nothing of public libraries by actual experience, and they advised with none of the profession as to preliminaries. But they were all public spirited men, and men of affairs. They had paid, and were paying, their full meed of service to the county as managers of its various institutions. They were familiar with the workings of the Washington county high school, the Washington county orphan's home, the Washington county hospital, and even of the Washington county jail. So it happened that while we of the

library world were tentatively discussing the question of county libraries, of regional libraries, and so forth, they calmly went ahead and established the Washington county library. A library intended to serve only the residents of Hagerstown, the county seat, would have been an anomalous institution to them. The county being the unit of government in Maryland, the county library naturally followed. The county seat where the central library is located, is a place of about 20,000 inhabitants, easily accessible from all parts of the county which covers an area of 500 square miles, and has a population of 50,000 almost exclusively agricultural in its pursuits. The library is absolutely free to all residents of the county without distinction as to age, "race or previous condition of servitude," a phrase not yet without meaning in our state.

Since its doors were opened in 1901, it has been the unceasing effort of the management to make the library as vital a thing in the county as in the town. To this end, desposit stations (seventy-five in number) have been scattered over its territory, placed in the country store, the post office, the creameries, at the toll-gates, or if nothing better offers, in some private houses. These boxes, containing about fifty books, are returned every sixty or ninety days for a fresh supply. The books that come back become an integral part of the library, and in turn the entire library is taken into account in making up the outgoing collection. With the books, an alphabetized blank book is sent, which contains on the first page a list of the books in the case, and in which the custodian is asked to keep a record of the circulation by name of borrower and title of book. It is found that this ledger system is less bewildering, more familiar in appearance, than one more conformable to library methods, and quite adequate for all purposes. At the central library, the book slips are retained and filed by the Browne charging system, the envelopes being marked with the name of the station, as Sandy Hook, Shady Bower, etc. If the borrower living in the country desires a particular book not included in the deposit station nearest him, he asks for it at the central library by post or telephone and it is mailed to him, charged to his station, with subcharge in his name, and directions that he return it to his station when due. A weekly delivery of books is also made to individuals through each deposit station if desired. One village in the county, beginning

with a deposit station, has become sufficiently interested to establish a permanent branch and reading room. A room has been furnished, a good magazine list secured, and the room is open daily under the care of a custodian provided by the village. From the central library, about three hundred volumes were first sent as a nucleus, and in addition an exchange of books is made every ten days. To this reading room go bulletins and exhibits which have first done duty at the central library, and here, a fortnightly story hour is conducted during the winter season.

The country schools are visited as well as those in the city, and teachers are made to feel that the library stands ready to help. Collections of ten books each are sent to these little schools in which there are seldom more than twenty pupils. With the books are sent pictures of which the library has a large, and constantly growing collection. All these pictures are mounted and annotated with sufficient fullness to serve as a lesson outline for the teachers if they wish to use them thus. In this way thirty class rooms in the city and as many more in the country are now being supplied. This foothold in the schools was not gained without labor, and even after a semi-reluctant permission from the teacher to send an experimental lot of books, the first attempt did little more than pave the way for another trial.

Rather an interesting example of the evolution of the use of the book in the school is afforded by the Sweet Spring school of which I hold a record of the past year. This school opened in September with 18 pupils, 10 books and 4 pictures from the library. That term the books were read 26 times, but no pupil read more than 4 of the books and 7 did not read any of them. The second term there were 15 pupils, 10 books and 6 pictures. These books were read 59 times, and there was no pupils who did not borrow at least one book. The third term the attendance was 19 and the supply of books and pictures the same. Now the circulation rose to 145 and 12 of the boys and girls read every book that was sent. The fourth and last term of the year opened with 20 pupils, 4 of whom left to work in the fields as soon as the spring weather came; so that from 16 to 18 children this term read 10 books 171 times, 16 of them reading every book. The first term, as you recall, each book was read twice, while the last term each one did duty 17 times.

In connection with the work with the schools, a story hour has been inaugurated in several of the country districts, one of the substitutes from the children's room going out by trolley to the school room. The story hour has a double object, the first, and perhaps the most important, being to make the children conscious of the existence of the library, so that when they come to town, the children's room will be an objective point; and second, to introduce them to certain books which the story teller carries with her and leaves, either with the group of children, or at the nearest deposit station.

After three years work in the county with the deposit stations and schools, it was found that thirty of our stations were off the line of either railroad, trolley or stage, and the question of transporting the books back and forth was before us. For a year we worked with a Concord wagon and horse, going out simply for the purpose of taking our cases. Then we built our book wagon, so constructed as to carry several cases for deposit stations and, at the same time, a collection of about two hundred volumes on its shelves. This began our system of rural free delivery of books which is now in its fourth year and can no longer be classed as an experiment.

No better method has yet been devised for reaching the dweller in the back country. The book goes to the man. We do not wait for the man to come to the book. Our British critics would call this a concrete example of the frantic rushing about of the American librarian, but we all know we might wait long before a busy farmer would ride five, ten, or fifteen miles for a coveted volume. The man who drives the wagon at once establishes a human relationship between the library and the farmer, a thing no deposit station can do. Psychologically, too, the wagon is the thing. It is the unknown brought to the very threshold. As impossible to resist the pack of the pedlar from the Orient as a shelf full of books when the doors of the wagon are opened at one's gate way. Sixteen routes, covering the entire county, have been laid out, some of them consuming one day, some two or three, while to drive to the most distant outpost and return takes five days. The wagon is on its travels at least two days in the week when the weather permits. Occasionally a week of rain or snow keeps it at home, for not only must the comfort of driver and horses be considered, but the fact that it is useless to ask, or expect people to come to the wagon for selection on an unpleasant day.

The experiment of operating this county library has shown two things conclusively. First, a central library supplying a large area gives better service than a number of small libraries scattered over the same territory. Second, it is an economy, an economy of books and of administration. Seventy-five deposit stations among 30,000 people, the number in the county exclusive of Hagerstown, means that every 400 people have access to at least 150 fresh books yearly. I remember when I was working with the Vermont library commission, how we hugged ourselves if we found a little library that could spend twenty-five or even fifteen dollars annually on new books. Then as to economy. With a trifle over 19,000 volumes on our shelves, our circulation last year reached 100,590. That eliminates the problem of the dead book, you perceive. Neither do we have to bother our heads with the ultimate use of our duplicate fiction.

And this work of ministering to the needs of 50,000 people, circulation department, children's room, school work, deposit stations, book wagon, Sunday schools, to say nothing of the clerical work, cataloging, etc., was done by a staff consisting of the librarian, children's librarian, two assistants, a janitor, and two substitutes. We are too busy to need a rest room, so there is another economy!

This does not mean that we are not augmenting our stock of books as fast as money and time permit, nor that we could not keep a larger staff at work. But we hope a larger staff and more books would mean a proportionate increase in our activities. Our dream is to have, instead of one permanent branch which now exists, six, in the six largest villages in the county. These branches should have suitable permanent collections, and be served with a weekly exchange of books from the central library. Instead of a story hour in a half dozen schools in the county, there should be a weekly story period set apart in each school. Instead of one book wagon, there should be two, and both on the road every day, weather permitting.

Then indeed we would make it unnecessary for the Country life commission to visit Washington county, for given a rural population inoculated with the reading habit, "all these other things" that make for rural uplift, "would be added unto them."

THE CALIFORNIA COUNTY LIBRARY SYSTEM

This paper was presented at a session on county libraries during the American Library Association conference at Bretton Woods in 1909. Its author, James Louis Gillis, was born in Richmond, Iowa in 1857. He was in railroad service in California from 1872 to 1895 when he was appointed keeper of archives in the Secretary of State's office, California, from which position he advanced till appointed state librarian in 1899, where he remained till his death in 1917. As state librarian he extended the sphere of influence of the library and was largely instrumental in securing the county library law in which he had great faith. He also established the California State Library School.

During the past four years the California state library has been actively encouraging and assisting the towns of our state in the establishment of public libraries. We feel that we have been successful in our original undertaking. On the other hand, we have become convinced that our original plan is not the best possible means for getting books into the hands of all the people. And again, we know that the small town library is not altogether effective in its own restricted field of activity. In the first place, its income is too small; it cannot purchase books enough; it cannot employ workers trained to do its particular sort of business. It does not reach the people who live just beyond the municipal boundaries. We are convinced that if the library is to be a worthy part of our popular educational system it must have a greater income and must reach all the people whether they reside in the town or country. We have tried to profit by the experience of other states wherein a larger library unit has been tried; we have gone a bit further and added some features which round out the plan. The result of our work is embodied in the County Library Act*, which

* See California Statutes 1909, ch. 470, p. 811-14.

was passed during the 38th session of the California Legislature.

The decision as to whether or not a county shall establish this system must be made by popular vote at the time of the annual election of school trustees. The question is submitted by the Board of supervisors, so there will be no difficulty in getting a vote, if there is any sentiment in the county favoring such a system. Towns and cities already having public libraries need not participate in the election, provided the governing body of the municipality gives notice of such intention at least five days before the election. In that case of course the town does not have the right to draw books from the county library and does not help support it. The advantages of being a part of a large system, insuring better trained attendants and a greater store of books to draw upon, will, it is believed, convince most towns that it is better to come in than to stay out.

An innovation which seems to us to promise exceedingly well is the method by which the county library is managed. The library committee of three is chosen annually from among the board of supervisors, hence the committee is one having a voice in the levying and disposition of county funds. The municipal library committee has no such powers and is often for various reasons altogether unable to influence city boards to raise sufficient funds to carry on the work of the library.

The library committee of three selects a county librarian for a term of four years, subject to prior removal for cause; but the librarian in order to be eligible must present a certificate from the state librarian, or from the librarian of the University of California or the Leland Stanford, Jr., university, vouching for the qualifications for the position. The candidate need not be a resident of either the county or the state at the time of his election. The salary of the librarian ranges, according to the class or importance of the county, from $750 to $2,400 per year. There are 29 counties in which the salary would be not less than $2,000. While the library committee has the power to make general rules and regulations and to determine the number and kind of employees of the library, the appointment and dismissal of such employees and the management of the business of the library, including the determination of what books shall be purchased, are duties which are left entirely to the county librarian.

The state librarian is given general supervision of the county library systems of the state. He is expected, either personally or vicariously, to visit the libraries of each county and to inquire into their condition. He may annually call a convention of county librarians, whose duty it is to attend and whose expenses, the law says, shall be paid out of the county library fund. An annual report of each county library system must be made to the state librarian.

The county library is to be maintained by a tax levy which may not exceed one mill on the dollar of assessed valuation. Instead of establishing a separate county library the board of supervisors may enter into a contract with an existing public library to carry on the work. Since, however, an election must be held before the tax can be levied, and since the school election occurs in April, nothing can be done under the provisions of the act, either in establishing a separate county system or in making a contract with a municipal library, until April 1910. Meanwhile literature is being prepared and plans are being made for laying the question, with elucidations, before the voters of the more promising counties.

California, like many other states, has a system of school libraries for which in the aggregate a rather large sum of money is annually spent. Returns from this expenditure are not satisfactory, a fact of which the school authorities themselves have long been painfully aware. With the approval of the State superintendent of public instruction an amendment to the school library law was introduced, permitting school libraries to become a part of the county library system. Their books and funds are turned over to the county library and the school libraries then become branches of the county system, serving not only the pupils of the school but also all persons residing in the neighborhood. We feel that the effect of this arrangement will be beneficial alike to school and to library.

In California there is also a teachers' library fund which is derived from certain fees charged when certificates are issued. The law establishing this fund was also amended, permitting the fund to be turned into the county library; it must be spent, however, for books of professional interest to teachers.

The foregoing is a very brief outline of what we are attempting to do in furthering library development in California. None of the laws for which we feel responsible go into minute

details for carrying on the work. We believe, rather, that a broad foundation should be laid on which each county may build with such variations as local need may dictate. Experience and time will doubtless suggest improvements. We are sure, however, that greater results will come from working the library business on a larger unit than the municipality. The county appears to be that golden mean which lies between the unwieldy state, on the one hand, and the too small town on the other.

CALIFORNIA COUNTY FREE LIBRARIES

In this paper, given at the Pasadena Conference of the American Library Association in 1911, Harriet Gertrude Eddy gives such a picture of the work actually being done in California, that it visualizes for one the possibilities inherent in the system.

Miss Eddy says she was "born" to library work in 1908 when she became first custodian of the first branch of the first county library in California. She was then principal of the Elk Grove Union High School. From 1909 to 1917 she worked under Mr. Gillis of the State Library as county library organizer. She left the library in 1918 for the University of California to become assistant professor in Agricultural Extension and State Home Demonstration Leader.

What justifies county free libraries in California? The answer is CALIFORNIA. From the Mexican line, 1000 miles to the north; from the Ocean, 350 miles to the east; down to hard pan and two miles straight up, every inch of California justified the idea and existence of a county free library; from orange groves to snow banks every month in the year; from steam plows on the plains, to mills and mines in the mountains; from gas engine irrigating plants in the valleys to stupendous engineering enterprises among the peaks. Single counties bigger than some states, where you take a sleeper on a fast train at the county line at sundown, and reach the county seat only in time for breakfast next morning! Our fathers thought of California as the land of gold. It is rather the land of grain and alfalfa, the land of lumber, of salt, and of borax, the land of oil, the land of fruit, and fast becoming the land of rice and cotton. Its vast extent has scattered its population; its topography has isolated it; its varied industries have diversified it; and necessities have made much of its keen-witted and intelligent.

Why county free libraries in California? Climb into a county automobile with me and glimpse some of our opportuni-

ties and responsibilities. Here is the beautiful Capay valley, settled by intelligent, thoughtful, reading-loving English people, living thirty miles away from a library. Forget your native tongue now while we go to a Portuguese settlement up near the San Francisco Bay, where only a year ago an attorney said discouragingly: "No use to put a branch of the county free library down there. The people won't look at a book." But to-day they tell me that nearly all the children, and at least half the grown people are reading.

From there we would go to one of our large counties where until a year ago, when the county free library was started, there was not one free library privilege within its confines, save the state traveling libraries of 50 volumes. There you would see at least eight thriving towns, almost cities, eager to be abreast with the procession of library supporting towns, yet diffident about undertaking the establishment of what has so often proved a mediocre institution. We pass farm colony after farm colony, growing up all over California with mushroom-like rapidity, desirous of having the best and most recent books on farming, but unable to buy them while meeting the heavy expenditures incident to the development of the new ranch.

Has the gasoline given out? Then we will stop at one of the many oil leases, where you will be surprised, not only at the oil, but at the high quality of intelligence of the people, and where you will find your technical and professional books in steady demand. You will meet educated mothers who welcome your books by saying, "We do not want our children to grow up in bookless homes," a condition otherwise forced upon them as their nomadic life from lease to lease eleminates books from the home equipment. One mother wrote to the county librarian, "There's nothing out here to look at but the stars. Can't you please send us a book about them?"

We would then visit a construction camp up in the Sierra Nevada mountains sixty miles from a railroad. Graduates and postgraduates from every notable college in the Union will greet you there, and you discover that the need for books is unprecedented, both because of previous opportunities which made books their portion in life, and because of present isolation, which makes books doubly welcome.

When we have taken this trip and many others like unto it, and *only* then, are we in a position fairly to consider the subject of California county free libraries. They have been a na-

tural and inevitable outgrowth of California conditions and development. While the work on the county libraries in Maryland, Ohio, Oregon and other states has offered a background, those methods could be applied to California *only* when modified to meet California conditions. Owing to the reversal of ways of thinking and doing things which the newcomer must make if he will succeed here, it seems impossible for a stranger, or *anyone* who has not had opportunity to study conditions, to realize the problems which are confronted here in California, in attempting to provide complete library service. The immense size of the counties, with their population so scattered as to require endless small community centers for marketing; the breaking up of ranches into smaller acreages, and the consequent establishing of hundreds of colonies; the springing up of numerous small towns; the superior quality of readers in the oil leases, construction camps and other places calling for professionally trained men, all these reasons and undoubtedly many others have shown the futility of attempting to secure a library service for all the people by the use of the two conventional and time-honored methods, the municipal library, and the traveling library.

Even though every municipality in this state were to have its own established library, nine-tenths of them would be too poorly supported to maintain more than a third rate reading room. And then what about the thousands of people living beyond the municipal line? The municipal library could not possibly shed its beneficent beam far enough to lighten the country gloom. Clearly, then, the municipal library does not solve the problem of complete library service. And even if there were a traveling library in every unincorporated community in the state, what could it avail for full library service, with its fifty miscellaneous books kept for three months? What would it mean, for instance, to the engineer who wishes to spend his spare time studying some of the books published since he left school? or to the ranchman who wants the latest books on alfalfa? or to the union high school located out at some country cross-roads? But even granted that state traveling libraries could furnish adequate service, the extravagance of transportation and duplication would be prohibitive. It is, however, too highly theoretical even to suppose such a service, for with the state library as a wholesale distributor of books through unlimited traveling libraries, the medium of connection between book and

borrower would be too elusive, too filmy. To get the best results, there must be more concrete relations, a definite means of service through a more personal supervision. That is, in a huge state like this, traveling libraries have proved to be a good whetstone to sharpen a library appetite, but scarcely a good meal with which to satisfy it. Instead of having the state library deal directly with the people, it is better to have much smaller units as a base, presided over by a live, enthusiastic person who knows the people and who gives them direct personal service, leaving the state library to its more legitimate work of supplementing and coordinating the smaller units. The state library is usually an abstraction in the minds of most people. The institution that is most concrete and is personified in the work of its librarian can secure most effective results.

With a conviction, then, that California had its own peculiar problem to work out; that it wished only to evolve a plan by which all the people of this state might receive library service; that half service is not business-like; and that a library has demonstrated its right to be conducted along sound business lines,—with this conviction, California set herself single-mindedly to the task of looking towards the best library interests of her people. What factors must be considered before the best results could be induced? What conditions were hampering the present attempts at library service? First, not a library could be found in the entire state which had sufficient funds to promote all the plans for advancement which it could well be justified and expected to undertake; clearly then it was the part of wisdom to seek means to secure more funds; second, the endless duplication in schools and libraries of the first few thousand books in numerous small towns showed the need of co-ordination with a larger unit as the base; third, the small libraries with their pittance of income prohibit trained workers, and it was clear that if library service is to become a science, professional supervision must be provided. And finally what unit would insure service to everybody? Only one answer to these propositions was inevitable: The county. In California the county is the unit of civil government which corresponds to the township of many of the eastern states. The county high school here corresponds to the township high schools around Chicago. The county, then, offered a logical unit, already organized, and affording machinery for library development which make artificial

organizations unnecessary. Then, too, the county represents enough valuation to insure adequate financial aid; moreover, its size is great enough to justify trained supervision. It would also furnish opportunity for co-operation and co-ordination, checking useless duplication, minimizing wasted effort and useless expense. And finally, with every county in the state organized, it would give *all* the people a library service.

Every reasoning, then, justified the adoption of the county as a library unit, and with this base, the first county free library law was passed in 1909, with these as its principal features: 1. The entire county was made the unit for library service. 2. Any municipality might withdraw if it did not wish to be a part of the system. 3. The county librarian, who was to be certificated, was given large power in carrying on the work. 4. A committee of the county board of supervisors constituted the library board. 5. An alternative or contract plan could be entered into between the supervisors and any library board, by which the library could in return for an appropriation of county money render library service to the entire county.

Probably no upward pull has ever been attempted in any undertaking by any organization in history, but what has had its difficuties, its setbacks and its obstacles. And the progress of county free library work in California has been no exception. Its difficulties came from two widely different sources: objections on the part of some library people, and defects in the law itself. The objections from the library side were that the county as a whole was made the unit, from which the municipality not wishing to be included must withdraw; and even when withdrawn its position was deemed to be insecure, since the city trustees could cause it to be included by their own vote. The other objection by some libraries was to the control by the supervisors.

As for the form of the law, it was fatally defective in the conflict been two sections. The original plan had been to put the county free libraries into operation through petitions, just as in the law providing for the establishment of municipal libraries. But during the passage of the bill through the legislature, amendments were inserted requiring an election. The sections providing for this did not accord, however, and so rendered the law inoperative, except in the section providing for a contract between the county and a city library.

Notwithstanding the objections made to the content of the law from the libraries, and notwithstanding its inherent defects from the legal side, it was a matter of deep significance, and most encouraging to those whose hearts were alive to the hope of improving library service, that the work of organizing and developing the counties went forward with an impetus that nothing could stop. The eagerness of the people for the adoption of the plan was instantaneous, for they saw possibilities for library privileges such as they had not before dreamed of. The plan appealed to them as comprehensive, logical, economical, and business-like, designed to get what the business world is seeking more and more these days—results. Eleven counties in quick succession adopted the contract plan, making in all twelve counties in the state, which are now giving county free library service, for Sacramento county had pioneered the work even before the formal passage of the law.

The mere mention of the Sacramento county free library is the touchstone to awaken the happiest and fullest feelings of reminiscence. I am glad that my first connection with the work was from the people's side of it; that my first impression, and the indelible one, of the true purpose of the county free library is service and always service, that every means to bring this about must *always* be a means, and *only* a means, and never magnified in its importance to endanger or overshadow the end. We never want to be in the embarrassing position of the traveler who could not see the woods for the trees. Nor do we want to be like the business firm that had just adopted a new but complicated system of administration. On being asked how it was working out, the manager rubbed his hands in satisfaction and said, "Fine! just fine! We know to a cent about every department." "How's business?" the first man asked. The manager looked rather blank and then said, "Business? Why we've been so busy getting the system to work that we haven't done any business." The teacher thinks because the class room order is good that the school is a success. Libraries and librarians, like all other professions, are apt to confuse the issue, to mistake the means for the end. In a big issue like this, the library is liable to entangle itself in meshes of confusion, mistaking the mechanics of the organization for the single-hearted purpose—which is service.

So I reiterate, that I am glad my first idea came from the

people's end of it. I shall all my life be proud of that branch, acquaintance with the county free library number 1, which we had in our country high school. The library had the goods. We wanted the goods. The county free library established the connection. That was the whole story, a very simple one. If any of you have ever faced the problem of making bricks without straw, you can appreciate what it means to try to make a first class high school without the laboratory service that a library affords. But we got the service that year. Think of one country high school having over $2,000 worth of books put on its shelves for use as it needed them throughout the year! Is it any wonder that high schools all over the state, as they hear of this beautiful new plan, are eager for it!

Is it any wonder that as the work of information and organization has been carried on, people in the county make every effort in their power to help toward success. One high school principal said, "We'll go on our hands and knees to the county officials." Others said, "We'll snow them under with petitions." This method has been necessary in only one county, however, for usually the county supervisors are as keen to see that the adoption of the plan will bring satisfaction to their people, as the people are eager to see it adopted. The time so far actually spent in the starting of county free libraries has been ten months. One ultra conservative county required the combined efforts of two organizers for a month. No particular opposition existed, but merely a desire on the part of the officials to be thoroughly informed that the people wanted the library. The very next county required only four days, and resulted in an appropriation of $5,200. Another county bade fair to take up the plan with only a three days' canvass; the supervisors were ready to, but an unexpected legal question caused the final action to be postponed two weeks. The ultimate appropriation of $12,000 made the two weeks seem trivial. Still another county voted $10,000 after only a week's missionary work.

They tell me that organizing work is easier here than in most states. I do not know, as my experience is limited. We have met temporary difficulties here in various ways. Sometimes the plea is that the county first needs good roads; sometimes the bridges have all been washed out by last winter's rain; once the county superintendent of schools wanted us to wait till the county had voted bonds for a new high school. But

opposition is never met from the general public, for they want the library service; and only one board of supervisors was completely indifferent, but you will agree with me that the circumstances were extenuating; they really were not to be held responsible for their strange actions; they were in the throes of a hotly contested primary election, a condition which being undergone for the first time in our state produced symptoms of incipient insanity.

The work of organization under the contract plan continued till is seemed wise not to carry it any farther, but wait for the new law, which was inevitable both because of the defects in the first one and the objections to it. The utmost care was taken to eliminate completely these two difficulties, by continued conferences and submitting the proposed bill to library folk who had found reason to complain; and by having the bill completely constitutionalized by expert lawyers and approved from the attorney-general's office. Only expressions of satisfaction and congratulation have come from all sources over the result of these efforts, and there now stands as a consequence upon the statute books of California a county free library law which we are confident will prove to be all that every one hopes for—a medium of library service to all who wish. I do not mean by that, that we consider it final. We are seeking only results. If this plan does not give them the desired results, or if a better one appears, we shall greet the new, and lay aside the old, with the same open mindedness that now infuses itself into the present conduct of work. We believe, however, that the new law offers an elastic medium to meet our present needs. It contains seventeen sections, and attempts to cover whatever points may be logically a part of the county free library's policy. It differs from the former law, which it repeals, in a half dozen or more vital features. First of all, the establishment of the county free library is left entirely permissive with the board of supervisors, no petition or election being called for, as it had been proved conclusively by the work of organization that boards of supervisors will, if they think best for the county, take up the work on their own initiative. A provision for a notice to be published three times before establishment gives sufficient publicity to the contemplated action. The second main point of difference is that while the former law included the entire county as a unit, with provisions for a municipality to stay

out, the present law turns the whole plan diametrically around, making the unit to start with only that portion of the county not receiving public library service. If a town has no library, it is included; if it has a library, it is automatically excluded.

Two plans are provided, however, by which a town thus left out may if it wishes enter the system. It may by action of its board of city trustees become an integral part in event of which, notices of intention must be published, and the town is taxed as a part of the system; or it may contract with the county free library for any or complete service, in which event the town is not taxed, but it pays whatever sum is agreed upon by the contract. Under either plan a town may withdraw from the system.

Counties may also contract with each other for joint service—a plan which will undoubtedly work out with advantage and economy, as in cases of a small and a large county close together, or two comparatively small counties, or an interchange of service along the dividing line, or for particular service of various kinds such as the use of a special collection of books.

The new law also provides for a board of library examiners, made up of three members, the state librarian, the librarian of the San Francisco public library, and the librarian of the Los Angeles public library. This board will issue certificates to any desiring to become county librarians, whom they consider capable of filling the position. It is perhaps unnecessary to explain this provision of the law, as its wholesome intent is clearly manifest. It forestalls the appointment of any but those qualified for the position, and thus insures the carrying on of the county work along efficient and professional lines. The suggestion has been made by the board of library examiners to prospective candidates, that they spend a short time at the state library, since it is the clearing house, so to speak, for records and for information of the county free libraries already started, which will prove helpful to those coming new into the work; on the same general principle that progressive teachers gather as often as possible for the summer session at the University, which in turn becomes a clearing house of good ideas for the schools all over the state.

The power to make rules for general supervision over the county free libraries is vested in the board of supervisors, an arrangement necessary to insure the library sufficient attention

from those who fix the income; but maximum power is given to the county librarian, who determines what books and other library equipment shall be purchased, recommends where branches are to be established, the persons to be employed, and approves all bills against the county free library fund. Salaries are fixed according to the class of the county, and range from $2,400 to $500.

The state librarian is authorized to co-operate with the counties, by sending a representative to visit them, and by calling an annual meeting of county librarians, just as the state superintendent of public instruction convenes the county superintendents of schools. An annual report is required to be sent to the state library, just as at present municipal libraries send one. A tax of not more than one mill on the dollar can be levied for the county free library on that part of the county receiving service from it, and the county is authorized to issue bonds for any part of its support. County law libraries, county teachers' libraries, and school libraries may be made a part of the county free library. The law also includes the contract section from the former law, in case any county should prefer that plan.

Such are the salient features of the new law. It became operative less than a month ago, but already two counties have taken the first step in establishment. The growth is bound to be rapid as has been evidenced by the enthusiastic but sober, serious way the work has so far been taken up. In the short time that county free libraries have been in operation, over $70,000 has been appropriated by the different counties, 114 branches have been established, and over 12,000 people are reading county books. Compare this support with $7,000 that the state library was able to spend this last year on traveling libraries! At the end of seven months one county librarian sent in the triumphant note that her card-holders topped the thousand mark. Another reported a circulation of over 37,000 for the first year. The work is already spreading itself into every branch of activity and industry. School libraries are being co-ordinated with the county work, women's clubs have their special study books, some fruit-packing houses have been made branches, a collection of books has been put into a jail, another at the agricultural farm, county teachers' libraries have in two instances been turned over to the county free library, and home libraries are being sent out in some counties.

This is the merest beginning. It furnishes, however, some basis for prophecy; too often there is too much talk, too little done, and California does not covet such a stigma; but in the light of what has already been accomplished I look forward to the time when our ideal shall have been realized; when the annual appropriation for library work by the counties shall aggregate half a million dollars; when in each of the 58 counties of this state there shall be a library centre with branches reaching out to every community needing them; when in every county seat there shall be a servant—trained, indeed, in the technique of library work—but beyond this and above it and first of all, fired with the inspiration of a mighty ambition to make his library a living, pulsing power to broaden and deepen and sweeten the whole life of his county; when in every little community there shall be a branch custodian, set on fire by the county leader, with vision wide enough to see that care of the branch library is a minor incident—that to know all the people and their needs, to quicken the desire to read, to direct that desire when awakened, and to furnish the books for the satisfaction of the desire—that this is the real work. I love to dream of the time when the library organization and equipment and service shall be so complete and efficient that every resident of this coast state, whether in the congestion of the cities, or the solitude of the farm distant on the mountain side shall have not only the opportunity, but the persuasion to read wisely and well.

This was the vision seen by those who launched the plan. This is the daydream that has quickened the zeal and strengthened the arms of those who have made the beginnings. In the gleam of this vision, under the inspiration of this dream, have we not the right to hope that the work will continue till our ideal shall become real and the people shall enter into their true heritage of a home university.

COUNTY LIBRARIES IN OREGON

A glimpse of another well-organized field where the aim is to reach every corner of the state. This article by Mary Francis Isom was also presented at the Pasadena conference. Miss Isom was born in Nashville, Tennessee in 1865. She was a student at Wellesley College and attended the Pratt Institute Library School in 1899-1901. Her life work was as librarian of the Library Association of Portland from 1901 to 1920. She was a leader in library thought and activity on the Pacific coast, and her influence and service extended throughout the country.

Library development is still in its beginning in the state of Oregon. The Portland library has been a public institution only nine years, and for four or five years enjoyed the distinction, joyfully given up, however, of being the only public library in the state. It has been a county library for seven years. Consequently, with library work slowly a-building and fairly well centralized, we do not meet the complications existing in California and other older and more fully developed states, and it has been an easy matter to prepare and adopt a law simple in itself, but covering existing conditions and providing for future growth and extension.

The Oregon library law as first enacted authorized any county containing a population of 50,000 or more to take advantage of its provisions, and limited the special tax for library purposes to 1/5 of a mill. This was passed primarily for the benefit of Multnomah County, the only county in the state whose population exceeded or equaled 50,000, and to enable the Portland library to extend its activities through the county, which it was exceedingly anxious to do.

The Portland library was so eager for this privilege that an emergency clause was added and the bill became a law at once. The Library Association of Portland is a private corporation.

A contract was made with the county court similar to the one already existing between the city and the Library Association. Under these two contracts the county library was organized. Its work may now be summarized as follows:

The central library containing the administration offices and the usual departments, reference, children's, circulating, etc.; four branches in the city with daily delivery from the central library; 406 classroom libraries in the city schools; traveling libraries in the engine houses and in the club houses of the street railroad men; then, through the suburbs of the city, where the population does not justify the maintaining of a branch, and in several of the small towns of the county, there are reading rooms, each open five hours a day, afternoon and evening, and containing a deposit for circulation of from 500 to 1,000 volumes. These have weekly deliveries from the central library. One of these reading rooms is a reference library of agricultural books and periodicals, with perhaps 75 volumes of general reading for circulation.

In the county districts there are 16 deposit stations of from 50 to 100 volumes each placed in the post-office, the general store, the hospitable farmhouse, the grange hall, occasionally the school house, in one instance in a barber shop, and in another in a church. These are practically traveling libraries, but a shifting collection and under elastic rules, for the interested custodian often brings in an armful of books for exchange to freshen up his collection, as he comes into town on his weekly or monthly errands. These deposit stations consist of adult books entirely. The juvenile libraries are placed in the country schools. There were over 60 of these libraries sent out last fall and placed in 89 class rooms. Does a county library pay? In the last ten years Multnomah County gained 119 per cent in population. In six years the circulation of the library increased 212 per cent.

To meet the changing conditions, at the session of the Oregon legislature last winter, the county law was amended, removing the clause specifying the amount of population, and increasing the library tax to ½ a mill, so that now any county in Oregon can avail itself of this law. The section specifies that the tax shall be assessed, levied and collected in the same manner as other taxes for county purposes, the proceeds to be known as the "library fund" to be expended solely for the pur-

pose of establishing and maintaining, or the assisting in the establishment and maintenance of a public library within the county.

The second section of the law provides that the county court for any county which has levied this special tax may use the library fund to establish, equip, maintain and operate at the county seat of the county, a public library, including branch libraries, reading rooms, lectures and museums and may do any and all things necessary or desirable to carry out this purpose. A clause follows which permits the county to contract for public library service with any corporation maintaining a public library at the county seat. This of course is equally applicable to a city library or to a private corporation giving public service, as is the case with the Library Association of Portland.

The third and fourth sections covering the usual provisions that no money can be expended except upon warrant drawn by the order of the county court and that every library so maintained by the county library fund must be entirely free to the inhabitants of the county, subject to such rules and regulations as are prescribed by the county court or the management of the library were not amended. These bills became laws on Thursday, the 18th of May, and Wasco County has already signified its intention of establishing a county library and Hood River County is considering the matter. The Library Association of Portland will henceforth enter into contract with the county alone, as the ½ mill tax will provide sufficient maintenance. In order to provide for the housing of libraries under this act, a county library building law was adopted. The first section of this law permits any county of the state containing a population of 50,000 inhabitants or more, to assess, levy and collect in the usual manner a special tax not to exceed 1½ mills on a dollar for the purpose of erecting a public library building. The Library Association of Portland is immediately taking advantage of this new law, and has plans under consideration for the much needed new building. The second section provides that this tax may be divided and may be assessed, levied and collected in not more than two successive years, but it shall never aggregate more than the 1½ mills. The third section provides that this tax shall be used solely for the erection of a public library building at the county seat upon a site approved by the county and conveyed to the county by any person, firm or corporation. The county court is also authorized to contract

for the use and occupation of this building with any corporation maintaining and operating a public library at the county seat. This contract may be upon such terms and conditions and extend for such a period as may seem advisable to the county court, but in the contract it is provided that the plans for the county library building are to be in accordance with the plans prepared by architects to be selected and under the control of the management of the library, subject to the approval of the county court. A fourth section reiterates the command that the library shall be free to all the inhabitants of the county.

In addition to the amended county library law and the new law relating to county library buildings, the Oregon legislature also passed a bill concerning farm libraries. This bill was introduced by a legislator who quoted J. J. Hill that "every farmer should have a library of agricultural books." This law provides that the county commissioners may appropriate $200 of the general fund of the county for the purpose of establishing farm libraries. The value of the Oregon law, it seems to me, is its extreme simplicity. No new elements are introduced; no new boards are established. The contracts are made with the county court which consists of the county judge and two commissioners. This is the governing body of the county with whom all contracts are made. The power, the responsibility, are left where they should be, with the librarian and directors of each county library.

SUMMARY OF COUNTY LIBRARY LAWS

Julia Almira Robinson first presented this to the League of Library Commissions in 1915. It was published in Public Libraries two year later. Miss Robinson, secretary of the Iowa Library Commission since 1913, graduated from the Wisconsin Library School in 1909 and was for a time with the North Dakota and then with the Kentucky Library Commissions.

1. *Support*—Tax levy adequate for support, exempting towns with free public libraries.

A tax levy is now allowed in all states except Missouri which authorizes a maximum appropriation from the county funds of three per cent of the annual appropriation—and Wisconsin allowing a maximum appropriation of $500 for the first year and $275 annually thereafter. In New York the county tax is added to the city library tax for communities with libraries already established.

All will agree, I think, on a support by tax levy rather than by appropriations and exempting communities with public libraries. Because of difference in valuations a difference in the levy to yield an adequate support will be necessary.

2. *Government*—A library board of five or seven selected by the county officers, with terms stated (three to five years) —also allowing a contract with an established library.

The present laws authorize library boards in the following states: Maryland, nine directors; Texas and Wyoming, three, the former appointed for four years, and Wisconsin five. In all these states the board is appointed by the county officers. It is possible in some other states a library board is appointed but I found no mention of it. But I can see no more reason for leaving the government of a county library to a politically constituted body than the management of a city library to the city council, and therefore favor a library board.

California, Montana, Nebraska, New York, Ohio and Oregon give the management of the library to the county officers but

allow contract with a local library, and Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota and Missouri make no provision for independent county libraries but allow county officers to contract with existing libraries for extension of library privileges to townships or counties making the contract.

In this question of the government of a county library by a board representative of the entire county, or by a local library board on which the community outside the town has no representation lies the difference between the independent county library and the one serving by contract. The former is of course the more desirable yet the law should provide for contract service also as this may temporarily furnish the best or only solution of the problem and need not interfere with the establishment later of an independent county library. In Iowa the officers of a township, town or school corporation are allowed to contract for library service, and the law works well.

3. *Powers of library board*—These should be clearly defined.

This will remove cause for friction in cases where a library board is appointed, but the county officers claim joint jurisdiction and frequently retain powers and duties rightfully belonging to a library board, which should be given the control and supervision of the library, the employment and removal of the librarian, the making of rules and regulations, and the expenditure of all library funds whether for building or other library purposes. The selection of books might be placed in the hands of the librarian. The board should be required to keep a record of proceedings and report regularly to the county officers.

4. *Initiative*—By county officers (or township officers) with or without a petition signed by a majority of resident taxpayers, Maryland, Wyoming, Iowa, and California with a two weeks' notice, allow the county officers to levy the tax and take steps for the establishment of a library. Iowa also allows a petition of a majority of resident taxpayers, Missouri requires a petition signed by one hundred or more taxpayers, Montana by twenty per cent of the voters. Nebraska, New York and Texas require the vote of the residents of the county.

I think no one would advocate making a vote necessary to the establishment of a county library, and I may pass by the objections to that. But county officers may be indifferent or hesitate to make a levy unless assured that it is the wish

of the taxpayers. Hence it is desirable to allow a petition by which they may be forced or authorized to action, though allowed the initiative without it if they will take it.

5. *Location*—County seat or elsewhere.

Maryland, Oregon, Texas and Wyoming require the location of the county library at the county seat; California and Montana allow it to be at the county seat or elsewhere, while the contract law in Iowa, Minnesota and Missouri make no restrictions.

The county seat might seem most desirable as bringing together all county departments but it is often less accessible or for other reasons less desirable than some other place.

6. *Buildings*—By tax or gift, erection in the hands of library board.

Few states make provisions for a building. California allows the board of supervisors to issue bonds, in Maryland the board of directors has power to purchase lot and erect a building, and in Oregon and New York a tax for a building is permitted.

Rather than leave this as an open question a clause permitting a levy for a building to be erected by the library board would better be included.

7. *Period of existence*—Library should be terminated only by a majority vote of taxpayers, and a definite term should be fixed for contract.

In California a county library may be discontinued by a board of supervisors on two weeks' notice; in Montana on a petition of twenty per cent of voters; in Texas by the county court on six weeks' notice; in Iowa the contract is made for five years; in Missouri from year to year.

No provision is made in most states for the discontinuance of city libraries and it would hardly seem that such power should be delegated to the county officers except under limitations, for a hostile board might use its authority contrary to the wishes of the residents of the county. In case of a contract a definite term should be stated, to be terminated by majority vote, as to leave it to be renewed from year to year is to reopen the question too frequently and often thereby close the contract.

8. *Extent of service*—Whole or part of a county, or another county, excepting communities with public libraries established.

That portion of a county not desiring library privileges may

be omitted, also communities with public libraries is allowed in almost all states, and would seem to be best, for though the whole county as a unit would appear desirable insistance might in some cases defeat the whole project.

9. *Methods of service*—Direct loan, branches, stations, schools, libraries, book wagons, etc.

This is stated or referred to in many laws and would well be included.

10. *Librarian*—What, if any, qualifications should be required is open to discussion, but appointment and removal should be with library boards, reports to be required to library board and state library commission.

California requires a certificate from a board of library examiners and attendance upon the annual convention of county librarians and reports as above indicated. Montana makes library training or one year's practical experience a condition, but allows removal of the librarian by the county commissioners for or *without cause*. In this state also employees of the county library, probably meaning assistants, are to be graded and pass an examination before appointment satisfactory to county librarian and county commissioners. In Texas the librarian is appointed for four years by the county court upon recommendation of library board. The salary is fixed by county court who may also employ and dismiss assistants.

Provisions protecting the librarian and defining duties as well as fixing qualifications might well be included and to remove the temptation to political favoritism, as is offered by the Montana law, it were better to definitely place employment and removal of librarians with library boards. The question of assistants might be left with the librarian subject to approval of library board.

11. *Operation*—The following are at present in service:

California, 24 independent, 7 by contract; Iowa, 16 libraries with township extension; Maryland, Washington County library; Minnesota, 9 counties; Missouri, none; Nebraska, none; Ohio, 8 plus 2; Oregon, 5 counties; Wisconsin, 14 with traveling library systems.

It is hardly necessary to suggest that even with the best possible law the help of the commission is needed to give information, arouse interest and promote county library projects.

Suggested provisions for a good county law

Support—Tax levy adequate for maintenance, exempting towns with free public libraries.

Government—Library board (5 or 7) selected from residents of the county by county officers, for a stated term (3 to 5 years), or a contract with an established library.

Powers of library board—Should be clearly defined.

Initiative—By county (or township) officers with or without a petition signed by a majority of resident taxpayers.

Location—County seat or elsewhere.

Building—By tax or gift, erection in hands of library board.

Period of existence—Terminated only by majority vote of taxpayers, and definite terms by contract.

Extent of service—Whole or part of a county another county, excepting communities with public libraries established.

Method of service—Direct loan, branches, stations, schools, libraries, book wagons, etc.

Librarian—Qualifications required open to discussion, but appointment and removal with library board, and regular reports required to library board and state library commission.

Operation—Even with best possible law the help of commissions is needed to give information, arouse interest and promote county library projects.

COLLEGE LIBRARIES

The earliest libraries in this country were in colleges, so that in organization and administration they developed early along very definite lines. Many of these lines of development differed from those of public libraries, but others were of great aid in establishing universal library principles.

In selecting this group of articles the college library has been thought of as occupying a field next in importance to the public library, the only special library to be treated alone.

COLLEGE LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION

Mr. Otis Hall Robinson, then librarian of the university of Rochester, made this summary of college library principles and usage for the special report on public libraries published by the Education Bureau in 1876. Mr. Robinson was born in 1835 and graduated from the University of Rochester in 1862. In 1864 he began teaching mathematics in the university and continued as professor of mathematics and later of natural philosophy until 1903 when he was made emeritus professor. From 1867 to 1889 he held the office of librarian and wrote various articles on library administration as well as on scientific subjects.

After what has been said by such men as Bacon, Whately, Charles Lamb, Carlyle, Emerson, and President Porter on the choice of books and how to read them, I shall not persume to give advice to the general reader. In the presence of so many rules and suggestions, however, it is natural for a librarian to inquire how many of the readers in his library pursue the best methods, and how many drift here and there without regard to rules, and with very little profit. This question is especially pertinent in a college library. Here the reader is at the same time a student. The librarian is, with the faculty, in some degree responsible for his healthy intellectual growth. He is not at liberty to permit a waste of energy for want of method by those who are inclined to read; nor may he be indifferent to the neglect of opportunities by those who are not. A library for the use of students requires such an administration as to inspire the dullest with interest and give a healthful direction to the reading of all.

The object of a society or club library may be the cultivation of science, the general diffusion of knowledge, or the mere pastime and amusement of its stockholders. Their tastes and aims must determine its administration. Librarians in such libraries work for their employers, and, right or wrong, are accustomed to boast their ability, after a few years, to know

the reading habits of their patrons so as to select for them just what will suit their fancy. The tastes and aims of stockholders will also determine the influence of such institutions. Towards the close of his life, Dr. Franklin claimed that this class of libraries, the first of which he himself founded, had "improved the general conversation of the Americans, made the common tradesmen and farmers as intelligent as most gentlemen in other countries, and perhaps contributed in some degree to the stand generally made throughout the colonies in defense of their privileges." In the absence of newspapers and other periodicals the libraries were the great sources of information. This indeed was probably Franklin's principal object in founding them. Discipline and general culture followed naturally. Public or town libraries are, except as to their support, very much like those of the early societies. Their object is general information and profitable pastime. A professional library is little more than a treasury of strictly professional knowledge. It is more or less limited by the practical wants of a single business or pursuit. Before reaching such a library a reader is supposed to be quite independent of the supervision of a librarian.

Now, a college library is none of these; it is something more than all of them. It is the door to all science, all literature, all art. It is the means of intelligent and profitable recreation, of profound technical research, and at the same time of a complete general education. Well supplied in all its departments, it is a magnificent educational apparatus. How shall the student of to-day become the scholar of to-morrow? It will depend little upon teachers, much upon books. He must learn to stand face to face with nature, with society, and with books. He will get access to nature and to society best through books. Without them he will ever be wasting his time on the problems of the past; with them alone can he get abreast with his age. Carlyle has pointed out the true relation of the teacher to the book. "All that the university or final highest school can do for us is still but what the first school began doing, teach us to read." And yet how few of the multitude who annually carry their parchments from our colleges can be said to be intelligent readers.

The importance of properly teaching to read is vastly increased in this country during the last half century by the rapid increase of libraries and other reading opportunities all

over the land. Whoever will take the pains to compare the statistics of libraries and of publishing houses and importations of books which have been published since 1825, will see that the young man who enters the lists for scholarship to-day has a very different field before him from what one had then. It is not too much to say that, even so short a time ago, books, to the great majority of our population, were exceedingly rare; and that there were not more than two or three places in the whole country, possibly not one, where a scholar could properly investigate a difficult subject. The rapid growth of population at hundreds of centres has given rise to thousands of libraries, many of them of considerable size. It is no objection that the number of readers has increased with the number of books. The advantages of each reader are proportional to the size of his library, suffering little or no loss from the presence of other readers. Besides our public libraries, the country is full of private collections, large enough to be centres of influence. And then we must add innumerable periodicals, which fill every avenue of public and private life, crowding upon us unbidden in business and retirement alike, with every possible variety of subject and style, and demanding that we take a daily survey of every nation and kingdom under heaven, Christian and heathen, savage and civilized. Fifty years ago most of the graduates from our colleges had to settle down to their life work where they had access to very few books, and among men who had never seen a library. They had to content themselves with the purchase of a few standard authors, an occasional addition of a new volume, and a few leading periodicals. Now the majority, of those at least who give promise of becoming scholars, soon find themselves in communities where books and magazines are as necessary for the mind as bread for the body. A constant stream of printed matter sweeps along with it public opinion. All read and think more or less. Our young graduate to be a scholar, an intellectual leader, must rise among men who have such advantages and such habits. The standard of scholarship is pushed upward by the intelligence of the masses. In view of these facts, one can hardly overestimate the importance, to those whose aim is above mediocrity, of learning to read during student life.

The question as to how the colleges are using their libraries to promote this kind of learning is one which may well receive the attention of those liberal patrons of higher education who

create library funds and build library buildings. Rapid as is the increase of libraries, still all are clamoring for more books. It is as if excellence were in numbers alone. How many volumes? This is always the question; never, How much and how well do you use what you have? Now and then an old man, more practical than scholarly, and a hundred years behind the times, stares around at your alcoves, seriously doubting whether you use all the books you have, and asks how you can possibly expect any one to give you more. The question is not an impertinent one, if only intelligently asked. That the measure of our having should be determined by the mode of our using is as old as the New Testament. Five thousand well selected volumes judiciously and constantly used will serve the purposes of education better than twenty-five thousand used only at the caprice or fancy of inexperienced young men. Far be it from me to discourage giving to increase libraries, but I would have those who give consider whether part of their endowments had not better be directed towards such a vigorous administration as to render the libraries most efficient.

What, then, should the administration be? The question naturally divides itself into three, which I shall consider separately.

First, as to the preparation of the library itself, its growth, classification, arrangement, and the other facilities for making it accessible.

Second, as to the nature and extent of the privileges to be granted to officers and students.

Third, as to the instruction in its use to be given to students.

I shall purposely omit all reference to the use of a college library by others than those connected with the college; for so far as its privileges are extended, by courtesy or otherwise, to clergymen and scientific and literary residents, it partakes of the nature of a public library, and does not come within the scope of this paper.

Growth of the Library

In considering how a college library shall be prepared for use, the mode of its growth demands our first attention. It must be constantly borne in mind that the object of a college is

education, not mere information, nor amusement, nor in general professional training. For the purposes of general education, teachers, students, and books are together. Any department of the library filled for any other purpose is filled amiss. Ephemeral literature on the one hand, and strictly professional works on the other, will properly occupy but small space, as the object of the library embraces very few of them. Now, theoretically at least, a college education extends to the elements of all the different departments of human thought, literature, science, art, history, with their various subdivisions. Each of these departments requires its share in the library, which shall be for that department the best attainable expression of its historical development and present condition. To manage the growth of any part of the library, therefore, one must be familiar both with what is contains and with the trade. The books one buys are to take their places among those already on the shelves, so that the whole taken together shall form the best possible educational apparatus. In managing its growth an active librarian and purchasing committee can do much, but they cannot be expected to know the whole library thoroughly, and, so to speak, also to read ahead of its growth, so as to know which of all the books published each department needs. Outside of what they happen to be familiar with, they will be apt to trust too much to numbers. But every teacher knows that the number of books in an alcove has very little to do with their educational value. Take chemistry, geology, almost any science—ten good new books may be worth more than a whole case twenty-five years old. Whatever we do with the old books, it is certain that the greater part of them must be excluded when the working power of the library is to be estimated. And then there will always be a large percentage of books, both in the library and in the trade, which have the general appearance of value, but which would really render little or no service either to teachers or to students. So far as the administration of the library relates to its growth, it is clear, then, that it must be directed in its different parts by masters of those parts, men who shall know perfectly its true relation to the progress of thought. Fortunately, in a college library such men are always at hand. The officers of instruction are in general the only persons capable of determining what books their several departments need. It is assumed that each will keep his eyes open

both to the state of the library and to the growth of ideas, at least in his own special field of inquiry. The growth of the library for the special benefit of the officers of instruction themselves, will properly come up under the head of privileges granted to officers, and need not be considered here.

Arrangement

Were the readers always to call for books from their catalogue numbers, and the librarian to act as a mere servant to take them down and put them up, it would make little difference how they were arranged provided only that the catalogue referred to their shelves. But if both officers and students are to make a study of the books collectively as well as individually, and the librarian is to be a teacher of their use, they must be arranged with these ends in view. Dictionaries, cyclopædias, gazetteers, maps, and other works of reference are best kept where every reader can have free and easy access to them during all library hours. If the management of the library should involve the use of a separate reading room they might be kept there, where also the better class of reviews and magazines could be used before the volumes to which they belong were complete for binding. It should be remarked, however, in passing, that a miscellaneous reading room, where all sorts of periodicals are regularly received, is at best of very doubtful educational value. Where no room is specially devoted to general reading, reviews and magazines are best treated in every respect as books. After the works of reference, and the periodicals, the arrangement should follow the classification as far as possible. Then the reader can pursue the study of a subject or the examination of a class of books with ease and the librarian and his assistants, when experienced in the classification, can manage the library in all its departments intelligently. To facilitate the finding of books the shelves in each class or department should be numbered, and the class mark and number of the shelf of each book entered in the catalogue. The class and shelf should also be very clearly marked on the cover of the book inside. Labels on the outside would be preferable if they were not so easily worn off. To number the books on a shelf seems to me an unnecessary labor, as a shelf is so easily looked over.

Library Privileges

Having prepared the library for use, it is proper to consider next the privileges to be granted to its readers. For the officers of instruction I have treated the library as an apparatus. It is theirs to use, both to increase their own personal efficiency and supplement and illustrate their teaching. The only special privilege accorded to them which should be mentioned here is the purchase of books for their special use which do not bear directly on their daily work in the lecture room. No one will doubt the propriety of furnishing teachers with the means of keeping in the front rank of their profession. The cause of education is best served thereby, though it require the purchase of books which no student is likely to touch. How far a college should promote science by equipping its professors for original investigations outside of their official duties, must depend upon its general purposes and the extent of its means. Certainly no one can rightfully claim this for one department till the others are reasonably provided for. The duty of a teacher to watch over his part of the library requires him to do it, not for his own purposes, but for those of general education, directly or indirectly.

Shall Students Take Books Out?

Among the first of the privileges to be granted to students is that of carrying books to their rooms, to be used there. To this there are many and serious objections which, I learn, are allowed to prevail at several colleges of good standing, viz, the books are worn out; some are never returned; they are not in the library when wanted for consultation. These and other similar objections might have been forcible when books were rare enough to be a luxury. It was doubtless wise, then, to regard the preservation of a library as the chief end of its administration. But now the chief end is its use. If properly used, the wearing out of the good books is the best possible indication. As to the loss by failure to return, I quote from the last annual report of the Boston Public Library:

> The whole number of persons who have made application to use the library since 1867 now amounts to 90,782, of whom 14,599 were entered during the last year. . . The number of books lost during the year was 85, or about 1 to every 9,000 circulation.

After such a report it is clear that if books are lost among a few hundred students, who are nearly every day together, it must be due to ill management. The objection that books are not in the library when wanted for reference can apply with force only to a very limited number, which it is customary to reserve from the circulation. What is wanted is the greatest possible benefit from a library, but a large percentage of its most useful books will be of very little account to young men if their use is to be confined to a public reading room.

Access to the Shelves

In seeking for the highest working power of a library, our questions come up in this order: First, what use will increase its power? Then, what restrictions must be placed upon that use for the sake of preservation? Whatever privileges were granted or denied when books were scarce and newspapers and magazines few, the time has come to prepare students for the intelligent use of many books and the society of many readers. With that end in view, for many reasons the bars should be taken down under proper regulations.

First of all, because the study of the library, as such, is a very important part of a student's education. The complaint is made, and it is doubtless well founded, that the present tendency is to drift away from the solid reading which made the scholars of past generations, and be contented with the easy reproductions of thought in the newspapers and magazines. How many men are satisfied with one or two reviews of a book, when the book itself is within their reach and might far better speak for itself! In the multiplicity of subjects to be studied and things to be learned, we grow impatient. Turning over books leisurely and brooding over subjects till one grows familiar with the great authors of the past, and learns to love them, is seldom indulged in. The daily or weekly newspaper is ever before us. If this and succeeding generations fail to produce scholarship commensurate with their advantages, will it not be largely due to the frittering away of time which might be spent on good authors over short and carelessly written paragraphs on insignificant current events? A young man who is ashamed to be ignorant of the common newspaper gossip, who is ever placing the trifles of the present

before the great events of the past, is never found hungering and thirsting for scholarship. He has little time and less disposition for thoughtful and protracted study of the masters in science and literature. Now, by all means, let this tendency be counteracted by an introduction to the library. Remove the barriers and make familiarity with well chosen authors as easy as practicable. No habit is more uncertain or more capricious than that of a student in a library. He wants to thumb the books which he cannot call for by name. It is not an idle curiosity. He wants to know, and has a right to know, a good deal more about them than can be learned from teachers and catalogues. Deny him this, and he turns away disappointed and discouraged; grant him this, and his interest is awakened, his love for books increased, and the habit of reading will most likely be formed.

Another reason for opening the doors and encouraging familiarity with the library is suggested by the question so often put by young graduates, especially young clergymen, What books shall I buy? In the ordinary use of a library where books are referred to by teachers, or selected from a catalogue, a student will rarely handle more than four or five hundred volumes in a course of four years. He will learn something, but very little, of a few more which he does not handle. During his professional study he may become acquainted with as many more. Of all these he will care to possess but a very small percentage. How, then, supposing him to have acquired in any way a taste for books, is he to learn what to buy? He can generally spare but little from each year's income for his library. It is said that the next thing to possessing knowledge is to know where to look for it; it is also true that the next thing to owning books is to know what books to buy. Besides the purchase of his own library, many a young bachelor of arts or science finds himself, soon after graduating, in a town where a new public library is to be founded or an old one enlarged. He is supposed to have had advantages which the general public have not had. They are glad to avail themselves of what he knows. He ought to be able to lead them intelligently and keep the best books before the purchasing committees.

To my mind, at least, questions like these, of constantly increasing importance as they are, are worthy of the careful

study of librarians and library committees. A young man who spends four or seven years of student life where he can see a library, but cannot reach it, generally just fails of the only opportunity which is ever possible both to acquire the tastes and habits of a reader himself, and to prepare himself to mold the tastes and habits of others.

Again, in college life every young man has constantly before him two or three, perhaps four or five, subjects of study. Generally text books are prescribed, which with the lectures make up the required work. Now there is a school-boy way of going through such a course of study from term to term, learning precisely what is assigned, and never looking to the right hand nor to the left for collateral views of different writers. Servility and narrowness are the result. There is also a manly and scholarly method of making the required study only the nucleus about which are to be gathered the results of much interesting and profitable investigation—the pathway of thought through a very wide field of inquiry. This is the true method of a higher education. Take astronomy for an illustration. From twelve to twenty weeks are devoted to the usual course of lecture, recitation, and examination—just enough to teach the leading facts and principles of the science, solve a few illustrative problems, point out the intellectual value of its processes, its historical development and practical bearings. The teacher who attempts even these finds himself limited at many points to mere suggestion. The reading student usually acquires the facts and solves the problems of the lecture room very readily. He comes then to the suggestions. He soon makes this collateral work his own field. He feels a manly self-dependence as he turns over for himself the authors whose opinions have been accepted or rejected by his teacher. He raises pertinent and exhaustive questions. He learns the names and something of the lives and scientific places of the men who have made the science what it is. He makes memoranda of works valuable for their breadth and accuracy of scientific statement, or for the clearness of their popular method, or their historical places in the growth of astronomical ideas. When the term of study is ended he is fitted by his knowledge, and much more by his method, to serve the public wherever his lot is cast on all general questions involving the study of astronomy. What I have said of astron-

omy may be said of every other department of college study, and of some of them with much greater force. But the condition of all this work is a proper relation to the library. No student can do this work well, and few will undertake it at all, by calling for books from a catalogue. A reference is to be made, a date to be fixed, a question of authority to be settled, the scientific relation of two men to be ascertained, a formula to be copied, and a thousand other almost indefinable little things to be done, the doing of which rapidly and independently and with a purpose is the very exercise which will go far to make the man a broad and self-reliant scholar. To do them, however, a man must stand face to face with the books required. Then there are books to be selected for more extended reading, apart from the alcoves. One can be read carefully out of half a dozen of nearly equal value. An hour spent in turning over the books and making the choice is, perhaps, better than any two hours spent in the reading. Something is learned of the five which cannot be read, but which may be of great service for future reference; and, besides, the very act of making the choice—where assistance can be had in case of special difficulty—is a valuable educational exercise.

Nothwithstanding the great advantages of the use of a library in the manner pointed out, if I mistake not, it is not usually contemplated by college library regulations. How to use books is not so much studied as how to get and preserve them. It is seldom or never made itself an end to be attained by study. I have seen a college library of 25,000 volumes or more, all in most beautiful order, everything looking as perfect as if just fitted up for a critical examination, where the reading room was entirely apart, and the books could be seen by students only through an opening like that of a ticket office at a railroad station. The reading room contained dictionaries, cyclopædias, newspapers, and magazines, and, it was said, a well kept manuscript catalogue of the library. The result one can easily conjecture; the students read the newspapers, and the librarian preserves the books. At another college, which has good claims to rank among the first in the country, a friend residing as a student, after complaining of the great difficulty of using a library by means of a catalogue and with no access to the shelves, writes that he knows it contains plenty of good

books, for he got in through a window one Sunday and spent the whole day there. It is pertinent to inquire whether the interests of education would not have been promoted by allowing such a young man to ascertain that fact on a week day. In short, it is the usual regulation conspicuously posted, "Students are not allowed to take books from the shelves." This is reasonable, perhaps necessary, as a general rule; but when one inquires, as I have in several of the most prominent college libraries of the country, what provision is made for the student to look through the cases, and study the library as a whole, the answer is either that there is no such provision, or that the privilege is sometimes granted as a special favor to very worthy young men.

Now the preservation of the books is a very important consideration, and the general regulation guarding the shelves a most healthful one; but the proper use of books, collectively as well as individually, is quite as important, and hence the propriety of some special provision to that end. Granted that in order to have books in condition to be most useful, as well as to preserve them, they must be protected from too promiscuous handling by inexperienced or merely curious persons. Whatever order or arrangement is adopted, it is of the highest importance that it be rigidly observed. Still I cannot believe that regulations the most adequate for protection are at all incompatible with suitable provisions for use. The extent and kind of such provision practicable, or even desirable, would differ widely in different places. In small colleges two or three hours set apart one day in each week, with the privilege extended to all the classes, might be practicable and sufficient; in larger colleges it might be better to have hours set apart for particular classes, that the number might not be too large at once. Or it might be still better to provide for such work at certain hours regularly each week, and let the admission be regulated by previous arrangement with the librarian or other officer. The number to be provided for at once could thus be adjusted to the convenience of the rooms and the working force of the library, and what is quite as essential, the students admitted could be definitely put upon their honor in the enjoyment of such a privilege, and excluded if found untrustworthy.

I have tried to be very explicit on this point, because I am

satisfied that this privilege, when it is extended without proper restrictions, operates to the great injury of a library, especially as to good order; and secondly, because I believe that the supposition that such injury is unavoidable, is far too often allowed to stand in the way of the privilege altogether. I have written earnestly, almost in the style of an advocate, because in ten years' experience I have seen the best results from such a use of books as I have described. The two hours' work done regularly every Saturday in this library by an average of forty or fifty students, does them more good than any two hours' instruction they receive through the week. It is work which develops their powers, and begets the habit of independent research and the love of books. The questions which have been suggested by the lectures of the week are then chased down; books are selected to be consulted at the library, or drawn for reading at home during the coming week. All the advantages I have spoken of above, and many more, I have seen growing out of this privilege in the library over and over again. And further, it is a noteworthy fact that this privilege is sought and this work done by the best students. It is a proper supplement to the prescribed curriculum of studies, for men who are capable of extra work. In no case has it been suspected of dissipating the energies and causing a neglect of other regular duties. The injury to books is mainly that of misplacement, which with suitable instruction and safeguards, can be reduced almost to zero. The temptation to carry away books without permission is probably diminished rather than increased, as the privilege of using them is extended.

HINTS FOR IMPROVED LIBRARY ECONOMY DRAWN FROM USAGES AT PRINCETON

The method of administration at Princeton University, as described below, is so typical of the college library of the time, and of later years as well, that it admirably supplements Mr. Robinson's more theoretical article, just preceding.

Mr. Frederic Vinton was born October 9, 1817 in Boston, graduated from Amherst College in 1839, prepared for the ministry at Andover Theological Seminary and then taught for a time on account of his health. His first library experience was in cataloging his brother's library of five thousand volumes. In 1856 he became assistant librarian in the Boston Public Library, 1865 first assistant in the Congressional library and 1873 librarian at Princeton. His special interest was in bibliographic work. He published a subject catalog of the Princeton library and at the time of his death in 1890 was preparing an analytic index of scientific periodical literature of all languages.

If a college library differs from others, it may be in permitting a simpler administration, because the resort to it will be by a less number of persons, and those of higher intelligence. To meet the probable wants of such a constituency, the library should consist of the higher and highest sort of books; and to assist such readers in the use of such books, the librarian needs every ability and every accomplishment. Such requisitions would be overwhelming, if the appropriate work of the librarian were not exactly suited to make him what he needs to be. That appropriate work, in such a sense as almost to exclude every other, we hold to be the making of the catalogue. This *making* does not consist in the mere copying of the titles, but in acquiring as complete an idea as possible

of the books themselves. While each volume is passing through his hands, he must compel it to leave its image in his mind; not only that he may locate it among those most nearly resembling it, but that its idea may immediately recur to his thoughts when information is asked which it can supply. The supposed drudgery of cataloguing is therefore the indispensable means of making him a good librarian. We fear that the so much desiderated object of co-operative cataloguing (by which each librarian shall have the least possible writing to do) is unfavorable to good librarianship. For myself, I would on no account lose that familiarity with the subjects and even the places of my books which results from having catalogued and located every one.

Perhaps the first rule to be laid down in respect to a library is that it should be accessible in the highest possible degree. The ideal of a church is that, like the ear of God, it should be always open. The piety of Catholic countries and of monastic establishments has required that worship should never cease, and that the weary soul should always be able to enter the place of prayer. It is desirable, but not to be expected, that the student should be able to find at *any* hour the solution of his doubts. Libraries are closed during the night, though some are lighted in the evening. But it may be boldly said that libraries should be open every day and during most of the sunlight hours.

It follows, from such requisitions, that the library must have more than one attendant. A very moderate library exacts a number and variety of services too great for any one person. Equally necessary is it that its head should have nothing else to do than library work. It has been the custom of colleges and seminaries that some professor should also be librarian. No library can confer a tenth of the benefits legitimately to be expected from it unless it has a librarian wholly devoted to its service. The idea is intolerable that a librarian should have other work to do, whether that of another office or undertaken for his own interest. Authorship is a librarian's most probable temptation, but he should resist it with a priestly spirit. That is demanded of him which is required of the Christian: willingness to be last of all and servant of all. Not fame, but usefulness, must be his mark. A living index to the library must be his coveted praise. This will be partly secured by that

diligence in cataloguing of which we have already spoken. But, if the acquisition of new books were suspended, he would find a yet larger usefulness in studying the classes into which his books are divided: to perfect these, to have a clear idea of them, and to write a *coup d'oeil* for each. Specifying and criticising the characteristics of each book is his highest and most useful function. Instead of a mere nomenclator, it makes of him a critic, a philosopher, and a friend to every one who borrows. Judiciously done, this is of the utmost value to a body of students, equalling the usefulness of any professor. Too extended to be posted in every alcove, this should be appended to every section in the catalogue.

This catalogue, *as fast as it proceeds,* should become accessible to the students, in printed form placed in every room, if possible; otherwise in manuscript. How this may be accomplished, it may perhaps be permitted to explain, by describing the surroundings of the present writer. He sits in a circular desk having two openings for a passage-way. Four circles of small drawers gird him about, one above the other. These drawers contain the card catalogue, authors on one side, subjects on the other, both alphabetical. As he catalogues each book, he drops the description into the proper drawers, right and left. These drawers stand loosely on shelves, and may be pulled either way—inside by the librarian, outside by the students. A wire, passing through all the cards in a drawer, near the bottom, prevents the loss or displacement of any. Any man, therefore, seeking information may satisfy himself whether the library is known to contain what he wishes, so far as the catalogue has advanced. This he may do silently and without confession of ignorance. But in the early stages of catalogue preparation, the librarian's own stock of information may be drawn on or his individual ingenuity and aptitude for research be appealed to. If worthy of his place, mortification will follow any case of fruitless inquiry.

An approach to circular form seems most convenient for a library building. It has been adopted for several college libraries, and specially at Princeton. So great advantages seem to attend that a short description may be permitted here in addition to the illustrations engraved elsewhere. The circular desk already alluded to occupies the middle of an octagonal room, each side of the octagon having four windows, lofty but nar-

row. Two are omitted on opposite sides of the lower floor, for the sake of entrances, but the upper story has two half-length windows over each doorway, making thirty-two in all. Between every two windows a bookcase, starting from the wall, advances toward the centre; but they all stop short of it, so as to leave an open space of thirty feet. Every alternate one, moreover, is shorter than its neighbors, to avoid immoderate clustering in the middle. The material of all is butternut-wood, in native color. Large cinque-foil windows fill the pediments over each of the eight sides, and a star window is immediately over the desk. By these arrangements abundant light is secured. Each shelf holds two sets of books, standing edge to edge, no partition being interposed. Thus free circulation of air is obtained, the eye ranging through the building, over the tops of the books, as through the meshes of a net. The greatest amount of shelf-room is also secured; for, though the outside diameter of the building is but sixty-four feet, more than a hundred thousand volumes can be shelved within it. This is the more surprising, since the great reading-room of the British Museum, 140 feet across, if shelved twenty feet high around the wall would hold but eighty thousand volumes. From his desk in the centre, the librarian can see no book, but he can see every person present, even the floors, being of perforated iron, presenting no great obstruction to the eye. It is a perfect panopticon.

The usage prevails in some American libraries of locating books as they are acquired, according to a running number recorded in a catalogue kept at the desk. By this arrangement, it is claimed, if the alphabetical place of the title is known, the book can always be found. This may be true; but it is also true that all research by subjects is impossible. Logical connection of parts is everything to the inquirer, and the total absence of it makes a library useless for independent study. At Princeton, the students are allowed free access to the shelves, and no privilege is so highly valued. The inquirer does not then depend on the title in deciding the fitness of a book to his purpose, but is able to reject one and take another, if examination shows it to be more suitable. Besides this, his knowledge of books and of the laws of classification continually increases. It will be said by many that the safety of the books is completely sacrificed by so doing. But in so small a community as a college, where every man may be known by every

other, this may not be true. Ample experience has proved that in proportion as men are trusted it becomes safe to trust them. Each borrower is required to show his book at the desk before taking it from the room, leaving its title on a blank signed by himself. As a safeguard, however, against the dishonorable, a long colored book-mark, bearing the date and other memoranda, is laid in each book so as to appear at each end when it is shown at the desk. An attendant at the sole door of egress can see, as borrowers pass, whether any book has been illegitimately taken. The librarian always conducts the distribution of books, since this is almost his only opportunity of knowing the students, and of assisting their inquiries.

A skilful arrangement of books on the shelves is of the highest importance to inquirers pursuing research among them. During the absence of a complete catalogue, such an arrangement affords no mean substitute. A skilful arrangement is one which brings together things really alike, however entitled. It is well to divide the circle of knowledge into a few great sections conspicuously distinguished. The world and its parts may be one of these, literature and science two others. The advantage will follow from this that the inquirer decides at once to what part of the house he must direct his steps. If now, in the alcoves having geographical names, a similarity of internal arrangement obtains, still further assistance follows. Let the books occupying the first tier of shelves in a geographical alcove contain voyages and travels in the region indicated; then the history of it as a whole; then the history of sections; then the biography, and last the collected miscellaneous works of its citizens. When this uniformity of arrangement is understood, it will afford much assistance; and if something like it is attempted in every other alcove, the advantage will be greatly extended. Every alcove at Princeton has its name plainly but not obtrusively printed within it, and a diagram of the whole floor, with all the subdivisions numbered, hangs in a conspicuous place. An alphabetical list of these subdivisions borders the diagram, making the way to find books very easy. The use of such expedients by applicants in finding their own books affords a useful discipline of mind to which intelligent persons are not averse. If unsuccessful in their search, the librarian may be applied to, who is then put on the defensive to vindicate his arrangement. It is

understood in all cases that the continuation of any subject located on the first floor may be looked for immediately above. Provided with so many facilities, the student may fairly be expected to use his own ingenuity; and a few leading questions from the librarian may be better than that he should leave his place to bring a book. When twenty persons are waiting at once, it is impossible he should do so. Explanations must be asked before or after the hour for registration.

The registration of books borrowed need not occupy much time in any library frequented, let us suppose, by two hundred a day. The labor may be thrown mainly upon the borrower, who finds blanks within his reach. These are somewhat oblong, having separate lines for "Author's name," "Title of the book," "Borrower's name," "Date." When a borrower presents his book and the receipt he would give for it, a careful comparison of the two requires but an instant. If the description be insufficient to identify the volume, because it is but one of a set, or because there may be more editions or more copies than one, the librarian adds these particulars to prevent subsequent dispute. While the book is abroad, the receipt should be kept with others, alphabetized according to borrower's names, in a box or drawer. If these were copied by the papyrograph and arranged in the order of authors' names, it might be known who has any absent book and when he ought to return it. When the book is returned, a colored pencil-stroke by the librarian, across the face of the receipt, frees the late holder from the obligation he contracted, and yet the receipt may be held by the librarian. These, being preserved in alphabetical order, form the literary history of the borrower, of his class, and of the institution. The statistics of progressive usefulness may be easily ascertained by means of them, at any distance of time. The receipts of literary men borrowing from the British Museum, early in this century, would have afforded a most attractive study if they had not been sold to paper-mills.

In a college library, oftener than elsewhere, it seems suitable to have several copies of standard works. Oftentimes, when a professor has commended a certain book in his lecture, a stream of students seek that book immediately after. It is not fair that only one copy should be found. Especially in respect to famous authors, every good edition should be in the library. It often happens that a whole shelf will be depopulated by

the sudden incursion of lovers of Milton or Shakespeare, students of Macaulay or Froude. Not seldom, after such a raid, some belated inquirer will report his disappointment at the desk, and be delighted if told that the coveted poem is also included in a certain collection at hand, or the admired passage concealed in some volume of extracts.

A most responsible part of library work remains to be mentioned, the selecting of books for purchase. Of course each professor is best adviser in his own department, but the professorships do not cover the whole of knowledge. This duty may not always be entrusted to the librarian; but, if he is fit for his place, he is more likely to do it well than any ordinary board of trustees. Having located and often handled his books, he is better guarded than any other against the danger of buying again what he already has. By constant intercourse with his constituency, he knows their needs, their wishes, and their capacity. If he is familiar with what has been written already, if his eyes are open to what is daily produced, and if his mind has been widened to comprehend the relations of one department of knowledge to another, it will be wise to entrust him with the augmentation of the library. He will not go wrong if he follows the track of the Astor library and the Boston institutions, as indicated in their catalogues. Especially if he has been trained in one of the great libraries of the country, he not only knows, by inspection of their contents, the quality of many thousand volumes, but he has probably had the advantage of years of intercourse with the great and learned men whose wisdom has made them what they are.

In many colleges one or more periodicals are maintained, as vehicles of public opinion or as repositories of superior literary work. The librarian may easily avail himself of such an opportunity to keep the students informed of attractive or useful acquisitions. If his funds do not permit a constant succession of purchases, he may confer great pleasure by describing some remarkable book, or even detailing the history through which some volume on his shelves can be proved to have passed. Perhaps no college library in the land is without some relic of scholastic or historic ownership. The parchment cover of an old volume may possibly be part of a unique manuscript of the classics. By searching out such things, the

librarian may awaken interest in his labors, attract public attention to his college, or at least promote good-will toward himself. Students respect a man whose eyes keenly interrogate every object within their vision; they may even be prompted to form habits for themselves of the greatest importance for their after-lives.

The librarian of a college holds a place of exceptional advantage in respect to opportunity for useful and happy relations. He sits in the centre of instrumentalities of which all wish to avail themselves, having facilities for knowing seasonably what all wish to know. It is often in his power to confer peculiar pleasure or render important services, at little expense to himself. He may thus connect himself by agreeable associations with the most influential persons. Young men may resort to him in mental perplexities, finding unexpected help or even deriving impetus for life. As a college officer, he has nothing to do with government, and therefore, in moments of irritation, he may serve as a pivot round which great excitements may revolve.

A college library, well furnished and well managed, becomes the workshop of the institution, the rendezvous of all the studious, the hearthstone, the heart and brain of the whole family. Many a man looks back to it as the place where he learned to think; where his conception was first widened of the infinity of knowledge, of the interdependence of all the departments of it, of the brotherhood of all who search for it. Its influence is in the highest degree suited to counteract that narrow selfishness which often results from the collisions of life. And thus, in regard to both heart and mind, it is the most important part of a literary institution, and should be cherished accordingly.

DEPARTMENTAL ARRANGEMENT IN COLLEGE LIBRARIES

Edith E. Clarke was born in Syracuse, New York, in 1859, took her bachelor's degree at Syracuse University, and graduated from the New York State Library School in 1889 when she presented the thesis which follows, as printed in *The Library Journal.* Two years later after serving as cataloger in the Columbia University library and in the Newberry Library she wrote a second part which was also published in *The Library Journal.*

As former cataloger in the Library of Public Documents, Washington, D.C. and author of the Guide to the Use of the U. S. Government Publications, her work is well known. She was librarian of the University of Vermont for eleven years and has been instructor in library schools.

We quote only Part I which gives a general outline for such a form of organization as Miss Clarke is advocating for student's libraries. Part II fills in many of the details of internal administration. The principle involved is division by subject rather than by processes. The University of Chicago library illustrates the departmental type of library while that of Princeton described above is closely centralized.

Is it desirable to divide a college library into separate departmental or seminary libraries, corresponding to departments of instruction in the college? On this proposition I take the affirmative, and shall try to show that in some cases the foundation of separate departmental collections will best fulfil the mission of the library—that of practical use.

I want to restrict my subject to the support of the proposition just laid down. That is, do not expect me to arrange the distribution of the library between the several departments,

nor to lay down in detail a plan for the management of such a system. My work is argumentative, not constructive, and I will only undertake to show when and why the plan proposed is feasible and convenient.

1st, as to the case where this plan is to be applied—for I am not so demented as to assert that all libraries indiscriminately should be arranged on the plan which is argued to be the best for one type among them. The type to which the plan of departmental libraries may be applied is college libraries, connected in their life and their use with schools of instruction, with institutions where study is carried on on a systematic basis and courses of instruction are adhered to more or less strictly. Contrast the functions of such a one with the free public library. To the college library flock the students, all wanting the same book at the same time. A squad of them use one set of books during all of one term, another squad another set as regularly. All have some definite end in view, and this end is designated to them from the central point of the department or course of study they are under. Their researches radiate from this *primum mobile,* never depart from it, connect with it at all points, and finally return to it as the repository of all their acquired knowledge. The public library reader, on the contrary, is desultory. He may be reading about China with a view to silkworm culture, or if he asks for a valuable work on coins, it is ten to one that he is getting up a campaign badge. The second work he asks for will in either case send you to the remotest regions of the classification from the first. It is true that the free library stands in the same relation to the public schools that the college library does to its college, but the connection is vastly more remote. It is along the same lines and entails the same kind of responsibilities, but other conflicting claims break in upon the adaptation of the one to the other, and the public library finds that the public school is only one of the most important among many patrons. Another point which effectually bars this plan from adoption in public libraries is the impossibility of admitting to free use of the books. Our scheme pre-supposes this and is nothing without it.

2d. I come now to the arguments for the plan. I will state them first and enlarge upon them afterward.

1. A large library becomes unwieldy and defies arrangement

in one room under the eye of one man. It then becomes a question of stacks, or separate collections.

2. A large library for convenience and maximum usefulness must eliminate from its working-shelves books duplicated in different editions, antiquated works, and others for any reason not in common use.

3. By this arrangement the librarian gains assistants in responsibility for books and in their care.

4. The departmental system secures a maximum freedom in the use of books with minimum risk of injury or loss.

5. It is eminently adapted to relative location.

6. It is a logical outcome of the classed arrangement.

7. It is superior to the plan of reserving books and prevents friction among students using the same books.

8. It is in accordance with the most advanced methods of instruction.

9. Its usefulness is attested by its being adopted to some extent by three of the leading college libraries of this country.

First: a large library becomes unwieldy. It is desirable to have each reader under the eye of an official of the library. For this to be possible, either the number of officers must be increased or the library must be in one room. Put the great majority of your books in stacks and a worker cannot use them there to advantage. Or if he has table and light, will you detail a special member of the staff to watch him? It becomes a compromise; either books must be used singly, away from others of their class, thus rendering impossible parallel readings, most valuable of all methods of study; or individuals most worthy of that privilege, I suppose most book-learned to start with, are admitted to the shelves, all others barred out. This is contrary to our library maxim, which is, Compel them to come in.

Second: books not used should be relegated to the stacks. The library has two functions, a workshop and a storehouse. Some of the books in Columbia Library belong to the museum department. I mean by that that they are of no earthly use, but are objects of antediluvian interest. The old fellows who took all knowledge for their province, and put all they knew in a quarto volume, should in these days of monumental achievements in science retire gracefully to the background, for they have finished their work in this world. A working library

should be kept as free from lumber as possible. Books removed need not be put beyond reach and knowledge. It is a matter of choice as to whether the second function of a library, that of storehouse, shall be performed by all. The librarian of the Nebraska State Library acknowledges that he disposes of old editions and rare and choice books in preference for those of more practical use (see L. J., 8:246). Where one is met with I always think there must be others yet to hear from. The Cambridge (Eng.) University Library, which receives copyright accessions, puts aside those not deemed worthy of a place in the main library. The British Museum keeps on the shelves of its vast reading-room a selection of 20,000 standard works which it aims to keep abreast of the best thought of the day. To accomplish this these books are almost entirely renewed in the course of a single generation. All working libraries should have the same treatment.

Third: by the proposed arrangement the library gains in the professors and advanced students of the departments coadjutors in the responsibility and care for the books entrusted to them. The department is to a degree the curator of the collection. The vexed question of pamphlets will then be solved. Forming, as they do, the latest results of the studies of specialists, their importance, when put in the hands of those who recognize that importance, will insure their preservation. Do you think, if you were a special student in mathematics and spent much of your time in the mathematic seminary room, learning the outsides of books as one learns the faces of dear friends, that that valuable monograf, paper-bound, on the theory of determinants, would be pushed against the wall to become dog-eared and dusty? Another consideration: Special use creates special interest. By classes is the most natural way for a library to grow, and would-be benefactors prefer to enrich a department rather than an unwieldy whole.

Fourth: by this arrangement the maximum freedom in the use of books may be obtained with minimum risk. Only students of the department are admitted to its library—no others. Accountability is thus narrowed down. Add to this the sense of ownership and pride felt by the class in their collection, and you have so many detectives on the watch for any one who shall filch from the value of their store.

Fifth: the seminary arrangement is eminently adapted to

relative location. Some one may say that departmental libraries break up the order of the classification so that relative order is unattainable. In answer to this—two things: (1) A large library so planned as to have all its books in consecutive order on the shelves without a break must be either all one large room or all stacks. In the one case it would resemble a skating-rink, in the other a prison. (2) Relative location does not assist in finding books till you know the *fixed* location of the class. It would be difficult to begin at No. 1, and follow the classes around till you came to 900, here at Columbia. And in these separate libraries classification with respect to the whole library and relative location should be maintained. I cannot be so disloyal to that method to which all true members of the Library School pin their faith, as not to carry the Dewey classification with me into departmental libraries as into all others. Duplicates there may and must be in these separate libraries, but they bear a class number according to their location. Books too valuable to duplicate must be supplied by dummies, shelf-reference, or supplemental lists.

Sixth: the departmental library is the legitimate outgrowth of the classed arrangement on shelves. Arranged syllogistically, the argument may be put as follows: Whatever arrangement enables a reader to find quickest and easiest, and most conveniently for his needs, all that a library has on a given subject, is best. Classed arrangement on shelves does this best for general readers; therefore classed arrangement on shelves is best for general readers. Departmental arrangement does this best for special students; therefore the departmental library is best for special students.

Seventh: Harvard Library has a plan of reserving books temporarily on order of a professor. These books are put on the shelves in the main library: the class being directed to use them freely. In 1887 as many as 6,280 were reported thus withdrawn from circulation at one time. This plan must entail confusion in all departments, and I should think special collections for the departments would take the place of this to a great degree. There must also be some friction among students all using the same books. If placed in their hands with absolute freedom, as the Law Library in Columbia is, this is reduced to its minimum.

My eighth is the main argument; more important than all that precedes or follows it. The departmental library works

on the line of the most advanced methods of instruction. As books multiply and the sum of knowledge doubles with every century, the system of acquirement of knowledge develops in two ways. It requires (1) wider acquaintance with authorities, and (2) more special investigation. Both of these lines require a greater number of books and more frequent reference to them than the old way, which had constantly in hand a few authorities which were depended on for all information needed. Now there is gleaning from all fields, and the man without books may better be without brains as far as work in any department of facts is concerned. Formerly it was a student's acuteness and intellectual calibre that was to be nurtured; now methods of study and use of authorities form a large part of instruction in all departments. I do not need other arguments in its favor than to mention that at Harvard, last year, "Under the name of seminary or special advanced study and research, this plan is introduced in the study of the Semitic languages, Latin, English, psychology and metaphysics, political economy, history, Roman law, mathematics, and, of course, the natural sciences. Not one of these seminaries existed fifteen years ago."[1] A description of the seminar given by Dr. H. B. Adams in "Seminar libraries and university extension" (1887) may be interesting to those who are not familiar with the subject.[2]

We hear most of the study of history conducted in this way; let me read also a description of a seminar conducted by the famous Dr. Ernst Curtius in classic art:[3]

For the afternoon, Mr. Curtius asked me to meet him at the Museum of Antiquities, where he gives, weekly, a lesson on Greek and Roman archæology. On his arrival the students, strolling about in the college waiting for him, came together, saluting him silently, then replacing their hats on their heads. He also remained covered and began without delay a tour of archæologic demonstration. Armed with a paper-knife of ivory, he went from one object to another, explaining and pointing out most minute members with the point of his paper-knife—now raising himself on tiptoe, now going down on his knees to better illustrate his remarks. Once he laid himself on the floor before a Greek statuette. Leaning on his left elbow and brandishing in his right hand his trusty paper-knife he launched forth into raptures upon the perfection of form and execution

[1] Dr. Foster, in "Seminary methods of original study in the historical sciences," 1888, p. 107-8.

[2] See also *L. J.* 5: 179-182.

[3] "New methods of study in history," by H. B. Adams, in volume 2.

of a miniature masterpiece. It can easily be imagined how profitable instruction so ardently imparted by such a teacher in the midst of such a college must be to the pupils. The lesson that I heard turned only on subjects of minor importance—tripods, candelabras, plaster vases etc.—but in spite of that, there seized upon one an infectious enthusiasm, a sort of odor of the antique enveloped one.

I am sorry I cannot, within the limits of this paper, go into a detailed examination of how far the seminary method is used in other colleges and in what departments. But it is safe to say that where Harvard leads others will soon follow. I hope I have said enough to show that work with the authorities at first hand forms an important part of instruction in all departments of knowledge in our day, and requires the library as faithful coöperator.

Ninth: the advantages of the proposed scheme are attested by the arrangement of three leading libraries of the country —Harvard, Johns Hopkins, and Columbia. The Johns Hopkins University report for 1887 makes a statement as follows: "The library numbers 35,000 bound volumes. These are arranged in several collections of which the following are the chief: (1) General reference; (2) Historical; (3) Mathematical and Physical; (4) Chemical; (5) Biological; (6) Classical; (7) Shemitic and Sanskrit; (8) Romance languages; (9) Teutonic languages.[1] At Harvard the sentiment of the chief librarian seems to be in favor of departmental libraries.[2] Growth in this direction, however, does not seem to have been so rapid as he has anticipated, for in 1887 he reports in all the separate collections in various class-rooms and departments a total of only 5200 volumes. We must add to these the 6280 reserved volumes to get the entire number open to students in connection with their special studies. Here at Columbia the law library is a departmental collection, not in a separate room, for reasons of economy, but that too may come in time, as the general readers crowd the law students out. The students in political science are assigned tables in No. 4, in convenient proximity to the Government reports. Last winter the philosophical seminar found an easy place in

[1] See also caution against any further separation into seminary libraries at the expense of the main library unless in way of duplicates.—8th Annual Report, 1883.

[2] See Winsor's report describing arrangement of Harvard University Library.—*L. J.*, 6: 9-11; also 6: 65; also Harvard College Library; Reports: 1881 to date.

No. 5, with philosophical books all around them, and theology, her twin sister, at one side. These examples might be multiplied had I time and space.

If my arguments have not convinced you, I have only one more weapon, viz., expert opinions on this subject gleaned from the L. J. and other sources. Mr. W. E. Foster says (L. J., 9:239) in a report on arrangement of libraries as affording aid to readers: "When the question is one of meeting the wants of a collection created for special purposes of study and research, different considerations are involved which do not enter into the case of libraries collected on general principles. . . . Nowhere does the application of careful study and intellectual planning, to such a problem as this, seem to have been brought to so high a point as in the case of one of the department libraries of Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore." Then follows a description of Professor Adams' seminar library.

Mr. Bowker, in speaking of the ideals of various prominent librarians of libraries of the future, speaks as follows (L. J., 8:249): "Mr. Poole's cellular plan, so to speak, providing for growth by rooms, each of which may be a specialized library within easy distance of a common focus." Whether or not Mr. Poole's idea is faithfully reported here, it describes the plan I have been presenting to you. In relation to it Mr. Spofford says: "Mr. Poole's plan would be entirely impracticable in the National Library, although suited to students."

Dr. Guild, of Providence, says (L.J., 8:274): "My own views in regard to a college library especially are in favor of the open alcove system, where the books can be classified according to subject and where professors and students alike can have free access to the shelves."

President White, of Cornell, has just left his fine historical library of 40,000 volumes to the university on the condition that a suitable *separate* room be provided for it. He also provides for a special librarian and professorship, thus creating a department around it of which it shall be the special library.

In conclusion, let me say that any one who cares to see a scheme of a vast library specialized as to subject will be well repaid for reading Mr. Cutter's paper on the Buffalo Library, in 1983, in L. J., 8:212.

I have been saving till the last a noted exception to the rule I have been stating, viz., where a college library is so

situated that it is called upon to furnish mental aliment, not only to its own students, but also to an almost greater number of specialists in every field. In this case it may be absolved from giving itself over so entirely to the convenience of its own students, and this work—I am bold enough to express the opinion—awaits Columbia College library in the future.

A STUDY OF COLLEGE LIBRARIES

Based upon the latest report of the Commissioner of Education, the statistics are so interpreted and humanized as to make a very illuminating discussion upon all phases of college library administration, near the close of the nineteenth century.

Miss Lodilla Ambrose was assistant librarian of Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, when she made this study. She left there in 1909 and became librarian of the Department of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene of Tulane University. She is now doing library research in medicine in New Orleans.

This study of college libraries in the United States is based on the latest published report of the commissioner of education, the official publications of colleges and universities, and some personal experience and observation. What, in general, is the relation of the library to the departments of instruction and the intellectual life of the college? The president of Vassar College once said to me: "I consider the library the very heart of the institution." It is significant that John Harvard's 320 volumes formed so prominent a part of his bequest for the foundation of Harvard College. There is similar suggestiveness about the action of the eleven Connecticut clergymen who laid down their books to the number of forty "for the founding of a college in this colony," and in Governor Belcher's early bequest of books to Princeton College. Where is the department of instruction that can get along without books? The library is the very workshop or laboratory for the students and the professors of the literary and historical branches of learning. The scientific man wishes to do original work. Before he can undertake it with any assurance of its being original work when finished, he must resort to books to learn just what others have accomplished. The record of what has been done and is doing in all departments of knowledge is, or should be,

in the college library. And college libraries have undoubtedly shared in the on-going and the out-reaching of the recent American library movement.

The report of the commissioner of education affords a basis for comparative statement regarding college libraries. I am obliged to use the latest published report, that of 1888-89, but the forthcoming reports will probably not alter the relative results to any great extent. I have taken into account the institutions given in the list of "Colleges of Liberal Arts," of "Collegiate Institutions for the Higher Instruction of Women, Division A," and of "Schools of Science." These lists include 456 institutions exercising college functions and influencing the lives and intellectual development of young men and women. Forty-three of these do not give the number of volumes in their libraries, and 44 give the number as under 1000; 57 have 1000 volumes but less than 2000; 45 have 2000 volumes but less than 3000; 43 have 3000 volumes but less than 4000; 21 have 4000 volumes but less than 5000; summarizing, 253 of these institutions, or 55 per cent. of them, have less than 5000 volumes in their libraries. Eighty-four colleges have 5000 but under 10,000 volumes; 43 have 10,000 but under 15,000 volumes; 21 have 15,000 but under 20,000 volumes; 12 have 20,000 but less than 25,000; 12 have 25,000 but less than 30,000 volumes; 8 have 30,000 but less than 35,000; 4 have 35,000 but less than 40,000 volumes; 3 have 40,000 but less than 45,000 volumes; 5 have 50,000 volumes but less than 60,000; 3 have above 60,000, one has above 80,000, and one above 90,000 volumes. Only four, at the date of this report, pass the 100,000 line. Perhaps the upper fourteen of these libraries have attracted more attention than the other 442 put together because of their size and the degree of perfection to which their organization and administration have been carried, and because of the fame of the colleges and universities with which they are connected.

Take another point of view. Which libraries, the small or the great, have the largest number of students dependent upon them? The four which passed the hundred thousand volumes line in this year had together 3037 students, and the upper fourteen, including these four, had 8120. The (253) institutions with libraries containing less than 5000 volumes, had 45,641 students. The (84) colleges having libraries of 5000 but under 10,000 volumes had 17,998 students; those (43) with libraries of 10,000 volumes but less than 15,000 has 12,031. In the colleges

(33) whose libraries contained 15,000 volumes but less than 25,000 there were 11,928 students; in those (27) whose libraries contained 25,000 volumes but less than 50,000 there were 10,037 students. Thus it follows that about 8 per cent. of the college students of the United States have access to college libraries of more than 50,000 volumes. Another small section of them, 9 per cent., have access to college libraries numbering 25,000 volumes but less than 50,000. Forty per cent. look to libraries with less than 25,000 volumes but more than 5000. Forty-three per cent. have for their college libraries those that contain less than 5000 volumes. I do not for a moment minify the importance of the great college libraries, but manifestly these small libraries of less than 25,000 volumes upon which 83 per cent. of the young men and women in this country who are seeking a higher education are dependent, have an importance that is not always accorded them.

The small college library has been characterized thus: "It consists of from six to twenty thousand volumes. It is composed in part of the libraries of deceased clergymen which have been contributed to the institution in bulk. To these are added the encyclopædias and books of reference of the edition before the last and a miscellaneous assortment of all the most obvious books in the ordinary branches of science, literature, and art. It is particularly rich in the 'books that no gentleman's library should be without,' and which, perhaps for that reason, are most often found on the tables of the second-hand dealers. The ideas of those who use it are generally bounded, not by the horizon of the subject which they are considering, but by the literature which is accessible." Granting this, the fact remains that these small college libraries are the only ones for very many college students. It would seem that their problems should be more studied, yet perhaps their greatest problem is poverty; like Hannah Jane they have to "make two hundred dollars to do the work of nine." Study may help them to make a little go as far as possible, improved methods adapted to small libraries may aid them to make the most of what they have. The importance of the library as an inseparable adjunct of college work may be emphasized and the necessity of having books before showy buildings. There can be no library without books, yet it has been said to me that it is vastly easier to get endowments for bricks than for brains.

It would be interesting to search out the eminent men and

women who have had their training in these small colleges with their smaller libraries. I think of one, bright, versatile, wielding a wide influence. I have seen his college library, a scanty collection crowded in an unassorted mass into a poorly lighted and worse ventilated room. But he said to me: "When a student at college I was one of the student assistants in the library. I went through it, book by book, and made a sort of mental catalogue of it for myself that has been of the greatest value to me ever since."

While the few great libraries serve research purposes, the many smaller ones promote the wide extension of education in a manner impossible to the few. The two classes are not antagonistic. What James Bryce has said regarding small colleges is easily applicable to their libraries. Admitting that the time for more concentration has come, he says: "The European observer conceives that his American friends may not duly realize the services which these small colleges perform in the rural districts of the country. They get hold of a multitude of poor men, who might never resort to a distant place of education. . . . They give the chance of rising in some intellectual walk of life to many a strong and earnest nature who might otherwise have remained an artisan or store-keeper, and perhaps failed in those avocations. . . . This uncontrolled freedom of teaching and this multiplication of small institutions have done for the country a work which a few State-controlled universities might have failed to do. The higher learning is in no danger."

As a college librarian I have been interested in the detailed study of some scores of American college libraries as represented in the official publications of the institutions to which they belong. This does not give absolute results, and silence on certain matters does not always mean that they are disregarded in the particular institution. But it is fair to assume that the facts thought most important are mentioned. This study at least shows tendencies and their comparative strength.

The object of college work has been defined as "the systematic and liberal education of young men and women." How is the college library related to this object? The independent utterances of several widely separated institutions bear on this question. One says: "It is becoming a factor of great importance in the educational work of the college;" another, "The library

is upon the whole the most important building on the campus;" again, "The efficiency of an institution for the higher education is dependent upon its library; if this was ever in dispute it is not now;" and another, "No one feature in the university equipment is more useful or more pleasing and satisfying to students." Even an institution whose library is open only seven hours a week says: "It is a valuable adjunct to the regular courses of study." The sentiment, "We try to get the students to use the library as much as possible," is in pleasing contrast to the ancient rule of Brown University, "Students shall come to the library four at a time when sent for by the librarian, and they shall not enter the library beyond the librarian's table on penalty of threepence for every offence." Justin Winsor says: "There should be no bar to the use of books but the rights of others. . . It is with me a fundamental principle that books should be used to the largest extent possible and with the least trouble."

To be used appears to be recognized by many as the chief end of college libraries. We may consider the preparation for this use, the kinds of use, and aids to use.

No money, no books; no books, no library. Endowment is an essential preparation for the use of a library. Out of about 170 colleges whose catalogues I have examined recently, including all the larger institutions and many of the minor ones, 25 mention a library endowment, stating either the yearly income or the amount of the fund; the incomes given vary from two or three hundred dollars annually to tens of thousands, the funds from a single thousand to several hundred thousands.

A library that is to live and be used must have a suitable abiding-place. A very common habitat of college libraries is a room or two or three in one of the college buildings, more likely than not in an upper story. Twenty-eight of these colleges speak of having an independent library building, the stated cost of these buildings ranging from $5500 to over $200,000, the facilities afforded for library work varying in a similar ratio. Many of these buildings claim to be fireproof; some of them are devoted entirely to library purposes, but in other cases the library is compelled to divide its heritage with some art gallery or museum. One college reports a library building promised, another one in process of erection, a third has a fund the income of which is accumulating for a library building.

Many colleges do not specify the form of library government. The library committees and councils described are variously constituted. The Harvard library council consists of the president, the librarian, and six other persons appointed by the corporation with the consent of the overseers for terms of three years. Another library council is composed of the president, the librarian, one trustee, and four professors; two others the same, omitting the trustee. One library committee is appointed by the president and trustees. The library committees are made up generally of members of the faculty, the president and the librarian being frequently included.

I suppose the ideal college librarian should have more wisdom than Solomon, more patience than Job, more meekness than Moses. But how many colleges have librarians who hold no other office in the institution, or whose chief duty is to the library? About one-third of these that we are considering. For the rest the librarianship is an attachment to some professorship which should command the energy and best efforts of the holder. There does not seem to be any marked preference for any one professorship in assigning this library responsibility. The chairs to which the librarianship is appended in American colleges include nearly all the subjects ever taught in them, singly and in widely differing combinations. One man is professor of history, philosophy, and political science, and librarian; one combines mechanics, astronomy, chemistry and the library; another is down to teach Greek, Hebrew, botany, and penmanship, and be librarian; and so on. It seems plain to me that a college library cannot be very efficient unless at least one qualified person gives his or her entire time and energies to its interests.

A prime requisite in a college library, where so much of the reading is done by subjects, is good classification on the shelves. Not many colleges give their classification; some simply state that the library is "classified," or "arranged by topics." Of those who speak of it at all, the greater part say that they have the Dewey system. One says, "Simple decimal classification," and one, "The Dewey plan in its division under general departments without the more minute subdivision." One follows closely the arrangement of the departments of instruction.

Justin Winsor well says that a library without a good catalogue is a "mob of books." Many more specify concerning

catalogues than do concerning classification. A very few have printed catalogues, the rest card catalogues. And here they differ again. Many say only "card catalogue" or "card index," others specify the "dictionary plan," "classed," "Dewey system," "author, title, and subject," or "authors and subjects." Several make note of a catalogue in preparation or an old one being rearranged.

What kind of books do these college libraries profess to contain? They say, some of them, books "selected with special reference to the needs of students;" books "bought under the direction of the heads of the several college departments;" books "intended to meet the needs of all departments of the university, the daily needs of the students, and the needs of the faculty and seminary students in investigation." Some make particular mention of collections of reference-books. Some confess to having very few of the books they most need and plead for endowment.

What kind of use is made of these libraries, or what arrangements are made for their use? Generally the library is open to all members of the institution, faculty and students, though I did find one that had a library of 22,000 volumes, 6000 of which had been "carefully selected for the use of students;" and generally the use of the library is expected to be supplementary to the class-room work. A dozen say that the library is open to the public also under certain regulations. The hours of opening, when specified, may be classified as follows: 80 hours or more per week, 2; 70 or more, 3; 60 or more, 7; 50 or more, 5; 40 or more, 15; 30 or more, 8; 20 or more, 7; 10 or more, 5; less than 10, 5; "daily," 19; less than daily, 2; evening hours, 12; vacation hours, 9. One library is open "during recreation hours." Nearly all are closed on Sundays and holidays. The few that are open at all on Sunday either have nothing but the reading-room open, or if the whole library is open, it is for consultation only.

I have not noted any college whose library is not a circulating one for its faculty. The major part of those who give any information on this subject state that students may draw books for home use. Several large institutions limit students to a reference use of the library, but these provide long library hours. Harvard allows each student three books at a time, which may be kept one month. Several allow three books at

once, but make the time two weeks with the privilege of one renewal; others permit two books at a time; the majority make no definite statement on this point. One college permits a student to take a book out if he deposits the value of the book. In a certain college a student may have only two books a week; one of these must be from the religious department, and these will only be given to him on presentation of a ticket signed by one of his professors.

Access to the shelves is a more or less mooted question. As I recollect the results of a study made several years ago, I feel justified in saying that the practice has greatly increased in college libraries in this time. Thirty now make a point of saying that students are admitted to the book-shelves. Usually this is under restriction, but some say "free access" without modifications. Some admit all students; more confine the privilege to certain classes, as junior, senior, and graduate students, or to advanced students to whom tickets of admission to the alcoves have been issued. Some who do not allow students in the book-stack place a collection of reference-books on open shelves in the reading-room. Some comment on the practice: "The books of a college library should be so arranged as to allow the students and professors to handle them freely. Catalogues, whether printed or otherwise, however necessary and accessible and however carefully and skilfully prepared, can never in an institution of learning take the place of the books themselves;" "It is thought that the resulting practical acquaintance with books and bibliography is no small part of a liberal education."

Following closely on the question of access to the shelves come certain special arrangements for facilitating the use of books, so that the special student and the special book may get together as readily as possible. I refer to reserved books, class-room libraries, department libraries, and seminary libraries, all only different applications of the same principle. Where the reserved-book plan is used, as it is by a few leading institutions, the professors select the books needed by their classes for collateral reading, and they are placed on open shelves and may be drawn only over night. Not many books are lost, but students sometimes sneak them out and keep them when they are needed most. Class-room and department libraries are placed in class-rooms or laboratories under the supervision of some professor in the department, and are designed to be working

libraries at hand for daily use. They are sometimes duplicates of volumes in the main library, and sometimes are only borrowed from it and are changed from time to time. Seminary library has come to have a familiar sound, but the idea is developed only in the larger institutions, where the seminary library is arranged for advanced students taking research courses. It has a room to itself with tables and chairs, where the work is done and the seminary meetings held, with the working authorities right at hand.

The reading-room where current literature is found is frequently separate from the library proper, and is sometimes under different management and maintained by the students themselves. Some institutions report society libraries, but they seem generally to have been absorbed by the college library, and to be now under the same administration. At least twenty-five institutions situated in or near cities call attention to other libraries than their own to which their students have access.

What aid is given in the use of the college library? The machine is in place, but the college student, with rare exceptions, knows almost nothing about its use. Shall he be taught systematically how to use it, or shall he be left to grope haphazard—a very unscientific, uncollege-like proceeding? First and always there must be personal work on the part of the librarian and assistants, so lightening a student's first library efforts that he will be inclined to come again; and when he returns, helping him again; and so on indefinitely. But however faithfully done, this personal work is fragmentary. The student does not so learn Latin or mathematics. If he is in any sense a student he must use books other than his textbooks. Each professor, if he keeps the matter in mind, can do much to assist the student in the use of the literature of his own department. But this will be only partial and incidental to the regular class-work in very many cases. There is need for systematic instruction in bibliography and the use of books, viewed from the librarian's standpoint and inspired by the librarian's practical experience with students on these lines. The student needs teaching about books and about method in using them. I have found only nine institutions that mention any instruction of this kind. At Amherst College, "the librarian lectures to the different classes from time to time on the use of the library and on general bibliography." At Bowdoin College, "instruction in the use of the library is

given to undergraduates by the librarian." At Colgate University the statement is: "Lectures will be given by the librarian on the true methods of using and reading books, and on the subject of library classification. Elementary instruction will also be given in library economy, with the purpose of preparing students who may desire to undertake library work for entering Library School at Albany or elsewhere." Among the courses of instruction at the University of California, I find "The Use of Books," with the following explanation: "The librarian delivers annually to the incoming freshman class a lecture describing the university library, its contents, arrangement, and catalogues. He points out the best books of reference, the bibliographies, and in general the working tools most useful to students. Illustrating by examples, he gives practical hints as to the methods of using books and of reading, especially as related to university studies." At Cornell University the librarian has a lecture course of one hour a week for two terms of the year on "Bibliography." It includes "introductory survey of the historical development of the book, illustrated by examples of mss. and incunabula; explanation of book sizes and notation; systems of classification and cataloguing; bibliographical aids in the use of the library." Wellesley College offers an elective course in bibliography of an hour a week throughout the year. "It is practical in its nature. It aims to familiarize the student with the best bibliographical works and the library methods and catalogues, to teach the best method of reaching the literature of a special subject, to furnish important bibliographical lists likely to prove valuable in future study." Some general library talks are also given. The Iowa State Agricultural College offers some similar talks during the fall term of the freshman year. At Johns Hopkins University the special librarian of the historical department lectures on library administration and history and literary methods. At the University of Michigan during the month of October the librarian gives a "course of lectures designed to aid readers in the use of the library and in gaining a knowledge of recent books. The lectures do not count toward a degree." The lectures given one hour a week during the second semester on "Historical, Material and Intellectual Bibliography," do count toward a degree. A full outline of this course was given in the LIBRARY JOURNAL in 1886. (L. J., 11: 289.)

A few special items about these college libraries remain to be noted. Several issue publications at regular intervals. About thirty of them charge a library fee varying in amount from one to six dollars per year; in one or two cases this is a deposit required only of those students who use the library. In one college there are book clubs among the students, and the books which they purchase during the year are at its close turned over to the college library. One college offers prizes for systematic reading. Some Catholic institutions have student library associations "intended to encourage useful reading among students;" in one of them, at least, unauthorized books found among students are liable to confiscation. Several colleges print lists for collateral reading in connection with the statements of the various courses. One announces a book reception by which it hopes to secure additions to its library. One places new books in a revolving case in the reading-room, and keeps up an index to current events.

May I quote Carlyle? "Of the things which man can do or make here below, by far the most momentous, wonderful, and worthy are the things we call books," and that other assertion of his, "The true university of these days is a collection of books." Such books, I suppose he means, as Milton called "The precious life-blood of a master-spirit." Surely Carlyle believed in good college libraries.

FUNCTIONS OF A UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

Tho he acknowledges all the normal functions of a college library, Mr. Harry Lyman Koopman's interest is in presenting his idea of a seldom recognized department which he calls the "student's library." It recognizes the extra-curriculum needs of the student, and encourages the development of the reader as well as the student. The "Linonian and Brothers" library at Yale is perhaps the oldest department of this kind, and a similar one now existing in the Smith College library is called a "browsing room." The paper called forth interesting discussion when presented at Lake Placid Conference in 1894.

Mr. Koopman was born at Freeport, Maine in 1860. He graduated from Colby College, from which he later received the degree of Litt.D. He held several cataloging positions before becoming librarian of Brown University, the position he now holds. He has published a catalog of the library of George P. Marsh, a Historical Catalog of Brown University, The "Booklover and his Books," and several other titles. His poetry has been highly commended by critics.

In the following paper I shall attempt to discuss the functions, or kinds of service, fulfilled by a university library; noticing at greatest length one function which is not yet recognized, and in regard to which I must appear in the character rather of advocate than expositor; but which, I trust to show you, represents an educational potency as vast as any that has yet been drawn from the still unexhausted resources of the library. In the limits of this paper the historical development of these functions can only be hinted at. Suffice it to say that they have all risen in response to the single demand of use, that principle which I take to be the rule of all sound library development. We all know how imperfectly it is still

applied; in how few libraries the searching challenge of utility is passed upon either the new books that come in or the old books that burden the shelves, or any other of the library's manifold problems. The demand of utility is simply a demand for fitness, the principle according to which libraries as well as vertebrates have been evolved.

What, now, are the functions that in the university library have grown out of the original simple service of displaying or lending books? A satisfactory university library of the present day must provide:

1. Reference-books of a temporary character. These are represented by the current numbers of periodicals and the various year-books and annual indexes.

2. Reference-books of a permanent character. These may be divided into direct and indirect helps, or epitomes and bibliographies, more familiarly known as reference-books proper, and catalogues; the former containing in condensed form the information sought, the latter telling us where to find it. Under the head of epitomes should be classed cyclopædias, and the various dictionaries, whether of language, literature, history, dates, biography, geography (including atlases), classical lore, theology, quotations, or synonyms. To these must be added concordances and indexes. Bibliographies are general, like library catalogues, or special, like catalogues of individual subjects. The works of this class are often found in manuscript, and represent almost the only department of intellectual activity not yet subjugated by the printing-press.

3. Reserve books of a temporary character. These are familiar to us from the reserve shelves of most college libraries, but may perhaps best be illustrated by the collections in the reading-room of the Harvard University library, where books to the number of hundreds are reserved by the different departments for periods varying from a week to a year or more. These books are reserved in connection with the current work of the classes, and have their own card-catalogue. But even in the largest departments they fill only a few shelves, or, at most, a case or two, often including several copies of the same work. Under this head belongs also the temporary display of new books.

4. Reserve books of a permanent character. These constitute the department libraries, which form so important a

feature of the modern university. They should contain all books likely to be referred to with any frequency in the work of the department. The size of the collection will, of course, vary with the nature of the department. Five hundred volumes might represent, I should think, a full-sized department library in any of the exact sciences, while 5,000, or possibly 10,000 volumes, might be needed for a language department; though, I confess, the latter number seems to me excessive. Frequency of use should be the test of a book's fitness for the collection, its importance otherwise being not in point. Books ceasing to be frequently used should be returned to the main library. For, the smaller a library is, the more useful it is, provided it contains the books needed. A collection of 1,000 books in frequent use will be much less available if mixed with 4,000 books never or seldom consulted. Unnecessary duplication is certainly an evil, since it wastes both money and space. But duplication has, nevertheless, a place in library management, which has hardly yet been appreciated.

A department library is, in my judgment, most satisfactorily formed by duplication of appropriate portions of the university library. In other words, a book gains its admission to the department library by being in sufficient demand to make a second copy of it desirable, the additional copy being placed for convenience in the working-room of the department. This I should take to be the rule, without insisting upon its invariable observance. To build up the department libraries at the expense of the university library is, of course, to deprive the latter of its most valuable reference-books on every subject. Moreover, there are many books which are of importance to several departments, and must either be duplicated in all or kept in the main library.

There is a further consideration that in practice will be found to weigh heavily against the over-enlargement of department libraries; and this is the fact that beyond a certain point they can no longer run themselves, or be managed with little or no extra effort on the part of the professor in charge; but, in order to be manageable, require the services of a special attendant or librarian. Even with this functionary I doubt if the plan would be a success, because the enlargement would involve the dilution of much-used with little-used books, which, as already pointed out, is simply to destroy the character of

handiness and ready consultation that, next to its convenience of situation, is the department library's chief excuse for being.

5. The great store-house of the library, corresponding to the "stack" at Harvard, where all but the reference and temporarily-reserved books should be found. It is the building-up and management of this library that forms the chief task of the librarian and his directors. Around this collection cluster the great problems of library administration, such as that of selecting from current publications the books of permanent value and only these, with the parallel task of supplying the library's deficiencies of this character in respect to past literature; such, again, as the admission of the whole body of the students to the shelves (a question which, as our libraries increase, will, in my opinion, have more and more to be answered in the negative, and that for two purely mechanical reasons, lack of standing-room, and confusion caused by disarrangement); such a problem also as the disposal of wholly superseded books, which make up from one to seven-tenths of every library, a problem which can be solved in one of only two ways, enlargement of the building, or "weeding out" of the books.

6. "The student's library;" or, a library for general culture specially designed for undergraduates. Such a library, so far as I know, does not exist; but I think of four libraries that by their defects as well as their excellencies may serve to indicate what such a collection should be.

It is still a source of gratification to me that my start in the scholarly use of books was made amid such favorable surroundings as those of the library of Colby University. When I entered college in 1876 the books under Professor Hall's charge numbered about 18,000, of which the less-used half was relegated to the second floor, leaving on the first floor one of the best working libraries for student use that I have ever had the pleasure of seeing. This is not merely my undergraduate opinion. I have visited the library twice after intervals of work in great reference libraries, and each time the impression was only deepened. The elements which go to make up the excellence of this little collection are, in brief, the following: convenient size, not too great to prevent the studious students' acquiring a real knowledge of the library's contents; good selection of books with reference to mere undergraduate work, and within the scanty means at the librarian's disposal; entire ac-

cessibility, convenient arrangement, and a satisfactory catalogue; above all, a skilled and helpful librarian. The faults are those of poverty, and such as a scholar will find in the best of "student's libraries," when he attempts to use them in research.

For, such a collection, even for undergraduate work in a progressive institution, needs to be backed up by a genuine "scholars' library" of ten times its size. This is the more favorable situation of the Linonian and Brothers' Library of Yale University, which is a separate collection of some 30,000 volumes adjoining the main library, and having its own librarian, hours of opening, and general administration. This library is supported by a special tax on the undergraduates, its growth being about 1,000 volumes a year. The history of the collection is an interesting one, as the library represents the fusion of the libraries of the two public societies, the Linonian and the Brothers in Unity, which, after about 100 years of usefulness, disbanded in 1871. Such libraries were found during this period in most American colleges, and have usually either been scattered or turned into the college library.

At Yale, it was the happier fate of two such libraries to be preserved and continued as one. The value of this collection to the students of Yale it would be hard to overestimate. But the library is much larger than is necessary for its object, a fault which is due to the mistake of keeping all its old books after they have been superseded; and, perhaps also, to a not sufficiently rigid selection in purchasing. But the Linonian and Brothers' Library comes, after all, nearer than any other that I know to what I have in mind for a "student's library." It has its own librarian and management, it is self-supporting, and is kept up to date. All that is needed to improve the collection as it now stands would be the exclusion of disused and unworthy books, and perhaps a more careful system of additions; together with such an improved catalogue as I shall describe later.

A third library, and one with which I am personally acquainted, is the Phœnix collection in the Columbia College Library, which numbers about seven thousand volumes. The collection contains many choice editions, and much elegant binding; but it represents too many out-of-the-way subjects and is too uneven for an ideal "students' library;" but its size is

not too great for familiarity, and it adds the educative value of good editions.

The fourth library, which I may claim to know well, is the private library of the scholar and diplomat, George P. Marsh, now in the possession of the University of Vermont. This collection contains 12,500 volumes, gathered for purposes of self-culture by one of our noblest specimens of the cultivated American; and therefore is, and for years will remain, a source of inspiration and culture to the students within reach of its privileges. But for their purposes the collection includes too many books in foreign languages, and is too exhaustive in special subjects, like physical geography and philology. The library enjoys a beautiful setting, a high and well-lighted room of its own, finished in oak, with an immense stone fire-place, opposite which is a large window looking out on the Green Mountains. The collection, however, is not intended to be increased, and, while it has been elaborately catalogued, it is not administered as a student's library of general culture, though it has excellent material for the foundation of one.

But before I present more definitely my conception of an ideal "student's library," let me ask you first to consider some of the reasons why such a library is desirable in a modern university. There is first the general reason of the desirability of culture, and the fitness of such a library to promote it. But there are also three special reasons. One is the fact that the modern family library has by no means the standard character possessed by that of two generations ago. Any dealer in second-hand books will confirm this statement. As a result of this condition the boy of to-day comes to college with little of that educative experience of having "tumbled about in a library," which Dr. Holmes sets so much store by. Another reason is that the size of the university library, even if it does not forbid his access to the shelves, sufficiently bewilders the student to prevent him from picking out the books he needs for personal culture. Where access to the shelves is denied, the difficulty of getting at books by means of the catalogue at once restricts the student's use of the library to reading for amusement or for production.

The result is that a man can go through college and take high rank, and yet enter the world a thoroughly uncultivated man. I do not say that he might not do this with the best of all "student's libraries" within reach; but he would not have

the same excuse. In fact, while we furnish opportunity for special research to the graduate or university student in the modern sense, if we provide no corresponding privilege for the undergraduate or college student, we are discriminating harshly against the college. Now, if those are right who hold that the two functions of higher education are best performed in concert, our institutions must beware lest, by a neglect of the college library as opposed to that of the university, they starve out the corresponding function of the institution itself.

The third of the special reasons for the "student's library" is found in the character of the modern university curriculum; which, to parody Shakespeare's Cæsar, tells us rather what is to be learned than what we learn. In our larger institutions the elective studies offered are so numerous, that the most industrious student finds a four years' course too short for more than a small fraction of them. In consequence of this, I prophesy that, while the courses chosen by different students will vary greatly, the wiser student will seek thoroughness rather than quantity; will endeavor to gain at least the foundation of knowledge in what seem to him the most important subjects, and will relegate the rest to systematic general reading.

The character of the library in question will be determined at every point by adaptation to its purpose; and that purpose we have taken to be the supply of books for the furtherance of general culture in undergraduates.

President Eliot has repeatedly asserted that he knows of no intellectual qualification essential to a lady or gentleman except the ability to use the mother-tongue correctly. The "student's library" will do much, will do more than a college course generally accomplishes, if it ensures this attainment. But it must obviously attempt more than this. Let us take a hint from the German name for cyclopædias, "dictionaries of conversation," and set as the lower limit of our endeavor such intellectual furnishing as shall put the student at his ease in intelligent company, an attainment conspicuously greater than is achieved today by the average Bachelor of Arts.

If there is such a thing as a college's duty to itself, or a students duty to his college, it seems to me that the two obligations should combine to prevent any student from getting through college without an intelligent, all-round interest in the world he lives in, together with some satisfaction to that interest. I am not sure that the extent of our modern elective system has

not somewhere near its sources a thought of this kind. But the elective system, so far as the individual student is concerned, breaks down by its own weight. What I offer has, it seems to me, at least the merit of being practicable, and may deserve consideration as complementing the inevitable deficiences of the elective system. Even if the duty of the college to itself and the duty of the student to the college are ignored, it seems to me that the college owes it to the student to provide him the possibility of such training, whether or not he chooses to avail himself of it.

But is not the standard we have set absurdly too low? Is it not rather the obligation of the university to provide for the student such a fuller degree of culture as involves an intellectual *rapport* with the true and the fine in human attainment as recorded and expressed in the world's masterpieces of science and art? The masterpieces of the world's science and art: this phrase furnishes the outline we have been seeking for our library; or, to employ the familiar, but practical and suggestive, distinction of De Quincey, the literature of knowledge and the literature of power should be made accessible to the student with such fullness and in such form as his capacities determine.

The fittest size for such a library could be decided only by trial. Perhaps the most natural suggestion would be 10,000 volumes as the best number for experiment, though the actual number of volumes might be increased by additional copies of the works most in demand. Beginning with the literature of knowledge, the student should find in this library information, in its most authoritative form, in regard to the world of matter and of men, in which his lot has been cast.

First, there should be at his disposal whatever is known of the earth itself, with its two great divisions of life, and the inorganic basis of that life, all in their past no less than in their present conditions. In the course of this study he would find more than one link to bind him to the orbs of day and night that once seemed so remote from all connection with himself. Selecting for special study the highest form of life, his own species, he would find in the many-sidedness of this subject, in its present and its past history, the larger part of all the books before him. He would be confronted by the record of man on the material side, in all that is implied by the science of medicine, with an inclusion of higher elements in anthropology and ethnology. Taking a still higher plane of observation he would

have unfolded to him man's social life, on the destructive side, in whatever pertains to war and its organized agencies, and on its constructive side, in the slow development of that which is still so far from maturity, human civilization. Passing to the literature of power, the student would find as elements of this civilization the æsthetic unfolding of the race, with its results in art and literature; and lastly, the parallel if not higher development of humanity represented by the words of the world's masters in philosophy, ethics, and religion.

Even the sight of these books in plainly-marked arrangement would be in itself no slight education; for it must not be forgotten that the ordinary student, especially in our larger colleges, never has an opportunity to see such a conspectus of human knowledge, and might even greet as a novelty the idea of a classification of the sciences.

Viewed from the librarian's position rather than from that of the student or teacher, this means the ten thousand best books for readers of the degree of intelligence represented by the college student. But there are several matters that need to be further specified; they are, to be sure, mainly concerned with the material side of the enterprise, but are of sufficient importance to make the difference between success and failure.

First, the building. If the collection is so fortunate as to possess a room of its own, and is not perforce consigned to a corner of the university library, I should like to imagine for it a room high enough for easy ventilation, and sufficiently large to contain the 10,000 volumes of the library on wall-shelves, the highest of which should not be above the reach of a person of middle height. Such a room might most advantageously be lighted from above, and its generous floor space should be provided with large and small tables and convenient chairs for readers. Here should be the desk of the librarian in charge, with a case for his most-used reference books.

In a well-lighted spot would be found the second matter of importance, the catalogue, which should differ from all existing catalogues by giving after the title of every work the reason for its presence in the library; indicating, if the work be one of pure literature, the author's school and relative standing; and, if a work of information, the relation of the work to the subject, with reference in either case, where necessary, to the character of the edition. In other words, the whole catalogue should be an annotated bibliography. This plan would

apply within the scope of the library, and with some extension, the "evaluation of literature" so strongly advocated in catalogue-making by Mr. George Iles. In these notes commendation would be out of place, because the admission of the book to the library would be praise enough; but they should give in terse form the author's attitude toward his subject, and his weak points should be indicated, with references in important cases to his opponents and defenders.

Thirdly, as to the books themselves, perhaps their general character has been sufficiently indicated. But it should always be remembered that the collection is a living one, new tissues constantly replacing those that are worn out. Whenever a book appears on an important subject, new or old, it would be added, only to be displaced like all the rest when superceded; so that the library would always represent the world's best books for the intellectual latitude and longitude of the college student. This should be equivalent to saying the best ten thousand books for the intelligent English reader not a specialist on any subject. It would be the privilege of the library to include a few of the first-class periodicals of the English world, like the *Atlantic Monthly* and the *Nation* in our own country, and the *Nineteenth Century* and *Academy* in England.

The librarian would also have the grim pleasure of barring out every made-to-order book, the mere response to market demand, literary slop-work; likewise every cheap and unworthy reprint or other edition of books to be had in reputable shape. Of course, if the reprint were better than the original, it would be preferred. *Editions de luxe* would be excluded, as they emphasize mere externals, and do not represent for the purposes of such a collection a value corresponding to their cost. But the library should certainly offer an object-lesson in sound book-making. No wood-pulp-paper should be admitted if avoidable, and if ever it had to be accepted, the catalogue should call attention to the cheat. The library would not attempt to make a display of fine bindings. Books issued in cloth binding should be so acquired as thus clad most distinctively: but whenever re-binding becomes necessary an opportunity would arise for displaying sound and durable bookbinding.

What would be the cost of such a collection? Perhaps ten or fifteen thousand dollars; with an annual requirement, for purchase and binding, of from five hundred to a thousand

dollars. A force of at least two persons would be required to run the library, as it would need to be open from eight in the morning until ten at night. The duties of the librarian would be to supplement his catalogue in every possible way, not necessarily confining his advice within the limits of his own collection. He should be the university's professor of books and reading, and should lecture to the students collectively as well as give personal advice. It might also be his province to offer an advanced course in bibliography, which would draw on the resources of the university library; but for his more primary lectures on the use of books the student's library would suffice, forming his own "department library."

As I think of the work of such a librarian, I do not find it easy to overrate, nay, rather, difficult adequately to estimate, the educational importance of such a position. Including all that the old college librarian might have done, but never did, it supplements the almost purely administrative duties of the modern university librarian with a service, which, I say frankly, I do not believe the great universities can afford to leave undone. There will always be men whom the work of direction and management, without participation in the literary side of the librarianship, will attract; and let us trust that they may be found in number and ability sufficient to the need of them. But another quality, which we may call the spirit and power of helpfulness, is required for the successful working of a "student's library;" and I am not sure that this gift, when found in conjunction with the requisite training is not an even rarer occurrence than the former. I am sure, at least, that if the "student's librarian" fills a position humbler in the eyes of the world than the university librarian, or the regular professor, as a wielder of power over future generations he need fear no rivalry from the occupant of any chair—or throne.

NOTE.—The writer is pleased to add that the discussion following his paper called out the statements that the reading-room of the Cornell University library contains a collection corresponding in almost every particular with that here outlined; and that the new reading-room of the Harvard University library will contain a similar "student's library;" while much the same idea is to be carried out at Columbia; in that, had the presentation of the paper been delayed, the suggestions it offers must needs have assumed the form of history. The writer would also remark that the additional function of a

university library specified by Mr. Austin of Cornell, namely, that of giving personal instruction to all the students in the use of reference books and catalogues, was in his own mind as one of the regular functions of the "student's librarian;" while he would express his obligations to Mr. Tillinghast of Harvard, for reminding him that he had failed to emphasize the important service of the "student's library" as a stimulus and guide to the students in the formation of their own private libraries.

SPECIAL LIBRARIES

In July, 1909 representatives of various special types of libraries, public utilities, legislative, technical, commercial, etc., met at the Bretton Woods Conference of the A. L. A. and organized a Special Libraries Association. Previous to this time very little had been written concerning these specialized phases of library work. College, medical and scientific libraries had been surveyed in the special report of 1876, but the majority of libraries interested in this association were the product of the twentieth century. Much of the material included in this section is due to the activity of this association.

The opening general article is followed by articles on a half dozen selected libraries illustrative of their types.

DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL LIBRARIES

As an introduction to this group of articles, I include a paper read at the first annual meeting of the Special Libraries Association in 1909. It defines the field entered by the association as specifically as a field consisting of so diverse parts may be defined. Robert Harvey Whitten, the author, was librarian of the New York Public Service Commission. Dr. Whitten was born at South Bend, Indiana, in 1873. He graduated from the University of Michigan, studied law at Columbia and political science at Chicago University. He was legislative reference librarian of the New York State Library, 1898-1907 and librarian-statistician of the New York Public Service Commission in 1907-1914. Since then he has been connected with city-planning in New York City and in Cleveland. He is author of several books in the field of city administration.

Perhaps the best way to begin a discussion of the development of the special library is to state briefly my conception of what is involved in the term "special" library. Many libraries have special collections on various subjects, and there exist in various places collections of books that are called libraries of this or of that. But these do not necessarily come within the scope of the term "special" library as I am here using it. By "special" library I mean an up-to-date working collection with a "special" librarian in charge; a collection so complete and well organized that it becomes an efficient tool in the daily work of those for whose use it is designed.

The purchase of a lot of books on a particular subject does not make a special library. The first essential of a special library is a special librarian. Without the librarian the library is dead. The special librarian is needed to put life into the collection and make of it a vital, growing, working force. This is the part of the problem that is most frequently neglected.

Books are purchased and perhaps cataloged and a library is said to have come into existence. This may be literally true, but the important question is as to whether the new library is dead or alive, and this depends chiefly on whether it has been placed permanently in charge of an efficient librarian. The librarian of the special library must take an intelligent, active interest in the problems to which his special collection relates. He must read and study many and know the contents of more of the books in his charge. He must look at each problem from the view point of the investigator and collect in advance the data from every source that will be wanted for its solution. A live working collection of material will thus be brought together.

The constant use of the book as a tool in the daily work of the world will be the outcome of the special library movement. The special business or office library corresponds somewhat in aim and scope to that of a handbook, such as the engineer's handbook. The handbook aims to serve the purpose of a tool for daily use. The special working collection has a similar aim. Each book, pamphlet and article in the collection corresponds to a page in the handbook. Each should have a very definite part to play. While not exhaustive, the collection should be sufficiently complete to answer the customary demands upon it.

The development of the special library is somewhat analogous to the development of the special school in education. The college of general learning was at one time predominant, but the need was felt for special training and special schools in law, medicine, engineering, etc. Special colleges and schools have been established to meet these needs. The great university of to-day is not a single school, but a cluster of schools around the central school. A great university now has separate schools of law, medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, veterinary medicine, mechanical, civil and electrical engineering, agriculture, forestry, pedagogy, journalism, library economy, commerce, etc. The number is steadily growing. I look to see a somewhat similar development in the library world. In the great library of the future the general collection will be used primarily to supplement the special libraries clustered about it. We realize that mere greatness does not constitute a great library. In practical usefulness the small, carefully selected and

organized collection is much more valuable than a large but imperfectly organized collection.

In discussing library co-operation at the recent Bretton Woods conference of the American Library Association, the most helpful suggestions were in the direction of specialization. Recognizing that no one library can possibly adequately cover the entire field, it was suggested again and again that each library should attempt to specialize within some particular field. By thus specializing they will be able to co-operate in the most efficient manner. By thus specializing and by developing within each great library special collections the library will be able to perform much more effectively its important task of so organizing the vast amount of printed material that it can be used in the every day work of the world. We are extremely rich in books, pamphlets and especially periodicals containing valuable information on every conceivable subject, but how seldom is this information available for use in connection with current problems of industry, commerce, finance or government. The material must be so organized that it can be used by busy men in the settlement of the problem that must be decided this day or hour—by the lawyer preparing his brief, the physician treating a case, the legislator drafting a bill, the engineer or architect preparing a plan, the editor writing an editorial, the business man making an investment. Only by the systematic specialization of existing libraries and by the establishment of many special and office or business libraries can this be brought about. I believe that before long our great public libraries will not only have as at present numerous branch libraries of general literature, but will have branch libraries of municipal affairs, branch law, medical and engineering libraries and special commercial and business libraries of various kinds.

One of the best examples of specialization in library work is the development of the Legislative Reference library. This movement was started in 1890 by the establishment of the position of Legislative Reference librarian in the New York State Library. The State Library has a large general reference collection, organized and classified with reference to general uses. In order to make this material practically available in the work of legislation, it was found necessary first to secure a librarian with special training in economics, government and law, and second to collect, arrange and index material with

special reference to problems of legislation. In 1906 the success of State Legislative Reference libraries led to the creation in Baltimore of a similar library for the city government. There is need for a special library of municipal affairs in every large city, either as a branch of the general public library system or as a separate department of the city government. A number of the national departments at Washington have established special office libraries. In the leading states of Europe the large government departments usually have quite a large office library. Among the departments of our state governments the Public Service Commission of New York City is the first to establish a complete working collection of this kind.

To meet the needs of the lawyer and physician special libraries of law and medicine have been established. The development of the engineering profession has brought with it the demand for special libraries of engineering. Large engineering firms have found the establishment of an efficient office library indispensable to their business. The great insurance interests have found special insurance libraries of practical value. Certain civic and commercial associations have demonstrated the value of a working office collection of material relating to the problems in which they are interested. Some of the large banking firms are making the office library an integral part of their equipment. A few large manufacturers have realized the practical value of an office library. The use of the office library in business has only just begun. I am confident that we will witness a remarkable development of business libraries. The time is not far distant when no great office building will be complete without a reference collection of books, directories and manuals and when most great engineering, industrial, commercial and financial firms will consider an efficient office library an indispensable part of their equipment.

MEDICAL LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES

Medical librarians have their own association, which meets with the American Medical Association. It has not been affiliated with the American Library Association, and very little is found in library literature about this field.

The article included was written by Dr. John Shaw Billings, then assistant surgeon in the U.S. army and librarian of the Surgeon-General's office in Washington. It surveys the important collections in the chief cities and describes in some detail the workings of the library of the Surgeon-General's office, the most important activity of which is the cataloging and indexing of their large collection.

A sketch of Dr. Billings is in Volume 3.

It is proposed in the following sketch to give some account of the resources available to the medical scholar and writer in the United States in the way of libraries which have been formed with reference to his special wants, and to make some remarks on the formation and care of such collections.

Comparatively few persons have any idea of the amount of medical literature in existence, or of its proper use and true value, and the result is that the same ground is traversed over and over again. Cases are reported as unique and inexplicable which, when compared with accounts of others buried in obscure periodicals or collections of observations, fall into their proper place and both receive and give explanation. Old theories and hypotheses, evolved from the depths of the inner consciousness of men too zealous or too indolent to undergo the labor of examining the works of their predecessors, re-appear, and are re-exploded with the regular periodicity of organic life; and even when literary research is attempted, it is too often either for controversial purposes, to serve the ends of prejudiced criticism, or to support a charge of plagiarism, or else for the

purpose of obtaining a goodly array of footnotes, which shall imply that the subject is exhausted, and give a flavor of erudition to the work. This state of things is by no means peculiar to medicine, but its literature is certainly an excellent illustration of the maxim "The thing which has been is that which shall be, and there is no new thing under the sun."

The record of the researches, experiences, and speculations relating to medical science during the last four hundred years is contained in between two and three hundred thousand volumes and pamphlets; and while the immense majority of these have little or nothing of what we call "practical value," yet there is no one of them which would not be called for by some inquirer if he knew of its existence.

Hence, it is desirable, in this branch of literature, as in others, that in each country there should be at least one collection embracing everything that is too costly, too ephemeral, or of too little interest to be obtained and preserved in private libraries.

When the great work of Mr. Caxton, the History of Human Error, is written, the medical section will be among the most instructive and important, and also that for which it will be most difficult to obtain the data.

There are a number of valuable private medical libraries in this country of from four to ten thousand volumes each. Having been collected for the most part with reference to some special subject or department, they are the more valuable on that account. The majority of the medical schools also have libraries of greater or less value to the student.

The collections relating to medicine and the cognate sciences, which are available to the public and are of sufficient interest to require notice in this connection, are those of Boston, Philadelphia, New York, Cincinnati, and Washington. No one of these indeed approaches completeness, but each supplements the other to such an extent that it seldom happens that bibliographical inquiries cannot be answered by referring to them in succession.

Medical Libraries in Boston

The principal medical collection in Boston is that of the Boston Public Library, which now comprises about 11,000 volumes, for the most part standard works and periodicals, the

latter containing files of the principal American and foreign publications. There is no separate printed catalogue of the medical section nor of any of the medical libraries of Boston, which fact much impairs their practical usefulness.

The Boston Athenæum has about 5,000 volumes of medical works. The Boston Society for Medical Improvement has 1,000 volumes of bound periodicals. The Treadwell Medical Library at the Massachusetts General Hospital contains about 3,542 volumes. Harvard University Library, including the library of the medical school, has between 5,000 and 6,000 volumes of medicine, including some of much rarity and value.

A collection which gives promise of much usefulness is that of the Boston Medical Library Association, which, although only about a year old, already contains about 3,000 volumes and receives the most important medical periodicals.

If the resources of Boston and vicinity in the way of medical literature available to the student could be shown by a good catalogue indicating where each of the several works may be found, the practical working value of the collections would be greatly enhanced. The difficulties in the way of accomplishing such a desirable result, although great, do not appear to be at all insuperable, and might be readily overcome by the conjoint action of the medical societies and of the libraries interested. The same remarks will apply to the medical collections of New York and Philadelphia.

Medical Libraries in New York

The library of the New York Hospital is the oldest and largest collection in the city, and now contains about 10,000 volumes. It is well housed in a building which although not fire proof is comparatively so. The books are conveniently arranged, and there is room for twice the present number. It receives about 100 current periodicals, but with this exception does not contain much recent literature. An alphabetical catalogue of authors was published in 1845; three supplementary catalogues have since been printed, and a fourth is now in the press. The one published in 1865 is a list of the donation of Dr. John Watson, consisting of 481 volumes of rare and valuable books. This library is for consultation and reference only, as no books are loaned, and is open daily, except Sunday, from 9 a. m. to 10 p. m.

The collection of the New York Medical Library and Journal Association now contains about 3,500 volumes, and is mainly

valuable for its collection of periodical literature. It receives about 95 current journals. No catalogue of this collection has been printed.

The Mott Memorial Library is free and numbers 4,700 volumes.[1]

The Academy of Medicine of New York City has recently taken steps to purchase a building, with the intention of forming a library which shall meet the requirements of so important a medical centre as New York, and valuable aid to this end from private collections is promised, notably from the library of Dr. S. S. Purple, which is remarkably complete in American medical periodicals and in early American medical literature. A large, well appointed, and well sustained medical library is much needed in the city of New York, and it is to be hoped that the effort referred to will be crowned with success. The library at present numbers 3,000 volumes.[2]

[1] This library was founded by the widow of the eminent surgeon, Valentine Mott, M.D., and is free for consultation and study to medical students and members of the profession. Additions to the collection are made annually by Mrs. Mott and her son; the latter manages its affairs. It has no permanent fund for its increase.—EDITORS.

[2] The Medico-Legal Society of New York, organized in November, 1872, began in 1873 the formation of a special library. The following is taken from a circular published by the president of the society in October, 1875:

"The Medico-Legal Society of New York has voluntarily assumed the labor of organizing and maintaining a complete library of all accessible work upon medical jurisprudence—especially in the English, French, and German tongues.

"There is not at the present time any notable collection of such works in the United States. The great law libraries in the city and State of New York, and indeed in the United States, have only a few standard works of this character, and there is no reason to suppose any change is likely to occur presently in this regard. The medical libraries of the nation are nearly as poor as are the law libraries in works upon medical jurisprudence.

"The society, by a general resolution unanimously adopted, voluntarily assumed the obligation on the part of each of its members of contributing one volume per annum to this library. A membership, which has grown from a small list to upwards of four hundred in three years, and which bids fair to be the strongest, numerically, of any of the kindred societies, makes this means alone likely, in time, to furnish a collection of great value. Liberal contributions of money have also been made by individual members, which have been invested in volumes, obtained by correspondence with all the dealers and most of the librarians of such works throughout the world.

"A catalogue of the names of all works ever published on these subjects is in course of preparation by members of the society, and is now far advanced towards completion."

The annual reports of the society show that up to November, 1875, the contributions to the library had been 390 bound volumes, 121 pamphlets, besides $498 for the purchase of books.—EDITORS.

Medical Libraries in Philadelphia

The medical libraries of Philadelphia are large and valuable, and an interesting account of their history and condition is given by Dr. Richard Dunglison.[1]

The library of the College of Physicians has received large additions within the last few years, and is now the most valuable working collection in the country, with the exception of that in Washington. It numbers more than 19,000 volumes, receives about 80 current journals, and is rich in the early medical literature of this country. It is a reference and consultation library to the public, and loans books to the members of the college. It is much to be regretted that it has no printed catalogue nor a catalogue of subjects in any form. It has about 5,000 volumes of medical journals.

The Library of the Pennsylvania Hospital, numbering 12,500 volumes, is the oldest medical collection in this country, having been begun in 1763. The last printed catalogue, issued in 1857, is a classed catalogue with an index of authors, on the plan of the catalogue of the Library of the Medical Society of Edinburgh, and is a valuable work for reference, which should be in every public medical library. A supplement to it was issued in 1867.

According to Dr. Dunglison, there is a remarkable absence of duplication between this collection and that of the College of Physicians, and together they well represent the early medical literature of this country, especially of Philadelphia imprints.

Since the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania has occupied its new buildings in West Philadelphia, a valuable foundation for a medical library, consisting of about 3,000 volumes, has been presented to it by Dr. Alfred Stillé, provost of the university.[2]

Medical Libraries in Cincinnati

In Cincinnati there is a small but valuable collection of medical books at the City Hospital. The Mussey Medical and

[1] Philadelphia Medical Times. Reprinted, 46 pp. 8°. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1871.

[2] This library is thus characterized by the generous donor:
"The collection comprises upwards of 3,000 volumes, including a considerable number of pamphlets. The bulk of the library consists of American, English, French, and German periodicals. The other works are in English, French, and German, and are chiefly medical as distinguished from surgical."—Editors.

Scientific Library contains about 4,000 volumes and 2,000 pamphlets and is at present a special deposit in the Cincinnati Public Library.

Medical Library in Washington

The Library of the Surgeon-General's Office is deposited in the Army Medical Museum at Washington, but may be considered as the medical section of the Congressional, or National Library, and is managed and catalogued in substantially the same manner as that collection. It now numbers about 40,000 volumes and 40,000 pamphlets, or, to state it in another form, about 70,000 titles. The library is intended to cover the entire field of medical and surgical literature, and is now an excellent foundation for a national medical library that shall be worthy of the name, and put the writers and teachers of this country on an equality with those of Europe so far as accessibility to the literature of the subject is concerned.

It has been formed within the last twelve years, and is of course too young to contain many of the incunabula or the books noted as rare and very rare, which are the delight of the bibliomaniac; nor, indeed, has any special effort been made to obtain such. Yet there are few of the ancient authors whose works it does not possess, although not always in the most desirable editions. It is comparatively full in American, English, French and German medical literature of the present century, and in works relating to surgery, pathological anatomy, and hygiene. Of the early medical literature of this country, that is, prior to 1800, it has but little. It possesses a few valuable manuscripts, the oldest of which is a fine copy of the Lilium Medicinæ of Bernard de Gordon, dated 1349.[1]

[1] There are libraries belonging to several schools in which the Eclectic and Homeopathic theories of medicine are taught, the only one of the former reported being that of Bennett Medical College at Chicago, containing 500 volumes; and the largest of the latter class that of the Hahnemann Medical College at Philadelphia, which numbers 2,000 volumes. The American periodical literature of neither of these schools is extensive. The following statement is from the pen of the dean of the faculty of the Eclectic Medical Institute at Cincinnati, also editor of the Eclectic Medical Journal. He thus sketches the history of the library of the institute:

"Beginning in 1845, it was deemed an important object to secure a good medical library of books, both new and old, and as a nucleus of such, a private library was purchased, at a cost of $1,500. It was a singular collection of books, both old and rare, and yet, with a few exceptions, it was wholly worthless for the uses of the medical student. The antiquary who desired to unearth old theories and crude methods of treatment would have been delighted with it. To this were added, from time

Cataloguing and Indexing

For the benefit of those who are **not** familiar with the practical workings of a large library, and who, therefore, do not appreciate the amount of time and labor involved, the following account is given. It will give no information to the skilled librarian, who will see at once many defects in the mode of recording—due in this case to the lack of clerical force.

The working catalogue of this library is a card catalogue of the usual form; that is, each separate work, whether it be a pamphlet of two leaves or a cyclopædia of fifty volumes, is catalogued on a slip of stout paper about 7 by 5 inches, giving under the name of the author the exact title of the work, the place and date of publication and the collation, that is, the number of pages or leaves, the size or form of the book, and the number of plates or tables. These cards are arranged in drawers, according to names of authors in dictionary order, anonymous works forming a separate class.

From these cards was printed the catalogue of authors, which was completed in 1873, and makes two volumes, royal octavo, of about 1,200 pages each, with a supplementary volume containing the anonymous works, reports, periodicals, and transactions. The cards from which this was printed were then distributed according to subjects, the subjects being arranged in dictionary

to time, works of the present generation until, in 1853, some 3,000 volumes had been collected, when, the library room being required for enlargement of the college halls, the books were stored in a small room, and the college was without a library for five years. In 1858 changes in the building were again made, and the books were dusted, some of them rebound, numbered, and catalogued, and made ready for use. But still the students were not inclined to use them, even with the aid of a nicely carpeted, lighted, and heated reading room, and, after two winters of disuse, the dust was allowed to accumulate on the books, and they rested in peace until the fire of 1870, when they were fortunately consumed.

"While thus somewhat unfortunate in our general library, we have to record marked benefit from a collection of books of a different character. In a medical college there are often spare moments between lectuers that students might improve, if books were at hand; and quite frequently study would be much facilitated if reference could be made to a standard authority, even for a moment. Often some important fact will have escaped the learner's mind, which, could he recall it, would make an entire subject plain and enable him to meet a coming examination. A moment's reference to an authority between lectures is sufficient, while without it there might be complete failure. Frequently an entire train of thought is arrested by the want of a single fact which is an initial point; the struggle of the mind to recall this fact is frequently sufficient to incapacitate it for the day.

"A reading room furnished with several sets of the latest text books for reference was provided, and with most satisfactory results. The books were in constant use.

"I believe that these working libraries are to be commended in all higher schools."—Editors.

order. This forms the subject catalogue. As new books were added a second card catalogue was carried on for them, which is known as the supplementary catalogue.

The subject catalogue above referred to has been very greatly extended by a process of indexing original papers in medical periodicals and transactions. The preparation of this index was begun January 1, 1874, since which date every number of current foreign medical journals and transactions has been indexed as soon as received. When a number of the London Lancet, for instance, is received, the librarian indicates in it by a slight pencil check the articles which should be indexed. The journal is then handed to a clerk who indexes each article checked upon one of the catalogue cards. The top line is left blank for the subject. Next is given the name of the author, the title of the article, literally transcribed, or if there be no title, one is made for it, and finally the abbreviated title of the journal, the year, the number of the volume, and the pagination. This mode of indexing is on the plan pursued in the Catalogue of Scientific Papers, 1800-1863, compiled and published in six quarto volumes by the Royal Society of London. The number of the journal, with the cards thus prepared, is returned to the librarian, who indicates in pencil the subject under which each card should be distributed, and the cards go to the subject catalogue. The journal receives a red stamp showing that it has been indexed, is checked off on the register of periodicals received, and goes to the files.

At first only foreign journals were thus indexed, it being known that Dr. J. M. Toner, of Washington, was preparing an index of American journals, which it is his intention to make complete to the year 1876. Upon inquiry, however, the work of Dr. Toner was found to be on a very different plan, as it includes all articles, whether original or copied, while on the other hand the titles of articles are much abbreviated.

It has therefore been thought best to index all journals, American and foreign, beginning with January 1, 1875. At the same time as much as possible is being done to index preceding volumes of important journals and transactions, of which about 1,000 volumes were indexed during the past year. This work will be continued as rapidly as possible. The following statistics show the total number of what may be called regular medical journals which have been established since the first, namely,

Les Nouvelles Découvertes sur toutes les parties de la Médecine, Paris, 1679, as well as the time and labor which the making of such an index will require:

	Number begun.	Number of volumes published.	Number that did not get beyond the first volume.	Number represented in the library.	Volumes represented in the library.	Current number, January 1, 1875.
British America	19	50	6	18	49	6
United States	214	1,320	66	209	1,259	53
Mexico	6	11	....	2	10	1
West Indies and South America	10	56	....	7	19	1
Belgium	29	343	4	10	309	5
France and Algeria	193	2,684	11	91	1,846	58
Germany and Austria	386	3,280	95	208	2,504	47
Great Britain	112	1,327	14	80	1,129	23
Greece	2	13	....	....	....	....
Holland	30	200	5	11	97	2
Italy	65	671	9	31	527	41
Japan	....	....	....	....	....	1
Russia	12	168	2	8	87	2
Spain and Portugal	31	191	1	8	15	6
Sweden, Norway, and Denmark	20	289	3	19	260	6
Switzerland	16	114	2	10	84	1
Syria	1	1	....	1	1	....
Turkey	1	18	....	1	18	1
Total	1,147	10,736	218	714	8,214	254

From this table it will be seen that the library now contains about 75 per cent. of all that has been published in medical journals. It would not probably be desirable to extend an index of these farther back than 1800, as the works of Ploucquet and Reuss fairly cover all medical periodical literature of any importance prior to that date. A few of the journals will be very difficult, if not impossible, to obtain; but these will be for

the most part of little practical importance. Several medical officers of the Army, whose stations made it possible to send sets of journals to them without too much inconvenience, have assisted in the work, and if this aid can be continued, it is hoped that the index will be completed in about two years. There is little doubt that it will then be printed, and it will form a valuable contribution to medical bibliography.

Such an index is proposed in the preface to the Catalogue Raisonné of the Medical Society of Edinburgh, published in 1836, but Professor Maclagan states that nothing has been done in this direction.[1]

The important part of a medical library, that which will give it character and value, and for deficiency in which nothing can compensate, is its file of medical journals and transactions. The difficulty of obtaining and preserving these is in proportion to the importance of the matter. The majority of them are essentially ephemeral in character; small editions are published; they are rarely preserved with care, and even when attempts are made to preserve them by binding, it is often, and indeed usually, without sufficient attention to the collation, so that in examining files of old journals it will be found that at least one-half lack a leaf, a signature, or a number. This fact causes much trouble and disappointment to the librarian, and must always be kept in view in the collection of this class of literature. In the attempt to make a complete collection of American medical journals for this library, it has been repeatedly found that what purported to be the volume or number wanting to complete a file was defective. It is probable that there is not a complete collection in existence at any one point, although there are two public and at least three private collections in this country which are very full, those of the library of the Surgeon-General's Office; of the College of Physicians, of Philadelphia; of Dr. Toner, of Washington; of Dr. Hays, of Philadelphia, and of Dr. Purple, of New York.

The rarest American medical journals are probably some of those printed in the West and South; for instance, the Ohio Medical Repository (1826-'27) and the Confederate States Medical and Surgical Journal (1864-'65).

Another class of medical literature which is important to the librarian, and the value of which is usually underestimated,

[1] Edinburgh Medical Journal, January, 1873, p. 585.

consists of medical theses and inaugural dissertations. To obtain complete series of these is even more difficult than to get journals, for the reason that they are more ephemeral, and because it is scarcely possible to ascertain what have been published, or when the series may be considered complete. For a few schools, lists have been published of the theses presented by their graduates, such as Paris and Edinburgh, but even for Edinburgh, the only catalogue of the theses which the writer has been able to obtain, does not show when the regular printing of all theses ceased. Callisen has been led into error in this way in his otherwise very complete Bibliographical Lexicon, in which he gives the titles of many theses which were never printed, notably of the Universities of Pennsylvania and Transylvania. The value of these theses is fourfold. As material for the history of medicine they may be taken to represent the theories and teaching of the school; they often contain reports of cases, or accounts of investigations made by the student under the direction of a professor, which are of much value, and they are necessary to medical biography, the more so as in most of the German universities a sketch of the life of the candidate is appended to the thesis. In addition to this, prior to the era of medical journalism, it was the custom for the president or one of the professors to add an introduction of ten or twelve pages to the dissertation, treating on some subject usually having no direct relation to the thesis, and forming the sort of paper which would now be sent to a medical journal. The number of these theses in existence is very great; there are in the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office about 40,000.

A few words of advice to those who may be desirous of forming a public medical library in connection with a medical school may be of some use; at all events, they are the result of practical experience. The first thing is to obtain works of medical bibliography, and a list of a few which will be found the most useful is appended. In addition to these it will be necessary to make arrangements to obtain regularly as published the catalogues of medical books issued or furnished by the following booksellers:

In Boston, Schœnhof & Moeller, James Campbell; in New York City, Wm. Wood & Co., L. W. Schmidt, B. Westermann & Co., E. Steiger, Stechert & Wolff, F. W. Christern; in Philadelphia, H. C. Lea, Lindsay & Blakiston.

The next thing is to take steps to obtain the current medical periodicals as completely as possible, and also the current ephemeral pamphlets, such as reports of hospitals and asylums, boards of health and health officers, transactions of medical societies, addresses, etc. These things, as a rule, cannot be purchased, and while they may usually be had for the asking at the time of their publication, it will be found very difficult, if not impossible, to get them after a few years, or it may be only a few months, have elapsed.

With regard to the purchase of books, so much depends on the amount of funds available that no general advice can be given. The majority of large works, of which there is little danger that the supply will be exhausted for several years, should not as a rule be purchased at the time of their publication, unless they are wanted for immediate use. In a year or two they can be obtained at a much reduced price. It will often be good economy to buy a lot of books in bulk, even although a number of duplicates be thus obtained, and this is especially the case at the commencement of the formation of a collection. On a small scale the same rule applies to the purchase of bound volumes of pamphlets. All duplicates should be preserved for purposes of exchange. It may seem hardly worth the trouble to preserve what most physicians would throw at once into the waste basket, but unless this is done the library will never be a success. There need be no special haste about the disposal of duplicates, as they increase in value with age.

Pamphlets

The pamphlets in the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office have been disposed of in three ways: First, there are 760 volumes of bound pamphlets, mostly purchased in that condition, which are for the most part classified according to subjects; these volumes are numbered consecutively. Second, about 2,000 pamphlets are bound in separate volumes. These are numbered as single volumes, and include those which are considered rare or especially valuable. The remainder of the pamphlets, including the majority of the inaugural dissertations of the German universities, are kept in file-boxes. These boxes are made of walnut, and the pamphlets stand in them with their title-pages looking toward the back of the shelf, the boxes being of widths suitable for octavos, quartos, etc. The box has no

top, and the rear end slides in and out, and can be fixed at any point. Each box will hold about 100 pamphlets.

The boxes are arranged on shelves suited to their height, thus preventing the admission of dust. The front of the box has a ring, by which it can be pulled out, and presents an ample surface for labeling its contents. By loosening the rear end, which can be done by a touch, and withdrawing it, the title of the work is before the examiner, and a pamphlet can be added or withdrawn without disturbing the others. When a pamphlet is required for use it is bound temporarily in stout covers, the backs of which are pressed together by a strong spring. These covers have an enameled card on the side, on which is written in pencil the title of the pamphlet within. This can be readily erased to make room for the next.

The theses of the schools of Paris, Montpellier, and Strasbourg are bound in volumes, following the usual arrangement for those schools.

With regard to binding, it is believed that the advice of the Librarian of Congress is the best that can be given: "Bind in half turkey, and in most cases let the color be a bright red." Binding in calf should not be used, except to match what has already been so bound. The binding in of covers and advertisements is an important point, and gives increased value to a volume so bound; indeed, it is sometimes impossible to collate serial publications without the assistance of the covers.

WISCONSIN LEGISLATIVE REFERENCE DEPARTMENT

Dr. Charles McCarthy, who was instrumental in founding the reference department for the Wisconsin legislature in 1901, wrote this account of its organization and work which was published in the proceedings of the Portland Conference, 1905, tho not read at the meeting.

This was the pioneer library in the field, and under Dr. Mc Carthy's librarianship proved itself of inestimable value to the legislators and through them to the country. Tho connected with the state government such a library must, like all others, be absolutely uninfluenced by politics to fulfill its purpose.

Dr. McCarthy was born in Brockton, Massachusetts, in 1873. He graduated from Brown University, but took his doctor's degree in history at the University of Wisconsin, where he immediately became legislative librarian.

Fifty years ago it was easy enough, with the problems then before the ordinary legislator, for him to understand in a degree, at least, enough about legislation to make laws which were good enough to meet the simple conditions which arose at that time. However, within these last fifty years great industrial enterprises have sprung up with increasing complexity of economic and social conditions. With this complexity legislation has of necessity also become complex. Our legislators have not kept pace with this immense development. In the short time of the legislative session it is absolutely impossible for any one man, never mind how intelligent he may be, to grasp all the facts relating to the complex conditions of modern legislation. It is true that we have many great writers on economic conditions who are constantly leading public thought

today. Men like Ely and Clark and Jenks do much to modify public opinion, but the ordinary legislator knows nothing or little about the work done by these men upon great questions of the day.

We have then, first, a great increase in complexity of legislation, and, secondly, we have a great many scholars working upon the complex problems which have come up, which are constantly arising, but we have not yet established a medium by which the thought of these great scholars can be brought to the practical help of the ordinary legislator. We have not devised the means by which our legislation can be bettered by the thought of a man like Ely or Clark or Jenks.

It is this problem that we are striving to solve by means of the Legislative Reference Library, maintained by the Free Library Commission, in the state capitol at Madison. This work demands an explanation. First as to the history of it:

In 1901 the historical society, whose historical library had rendered great aid to the legislature, was removed from the capitol, and the legislature provided for a small reference library to take its place. The author of this article was engaged to take charge of that library. It became apparent at once that the demands of this library were of a peculiar nature which could not be readily met by the ordinary library methods or by the ordinary library material.

A plan was devised which has since been carried out as far as the resources given by the legislature would permit. We found that there was no co-operation between the different states of this Union in the matter of getting the history of legislation. We found that there was a constant demand for a history of what occurred in Europe or in any state of the Union, upon a certain subject of interest to the people of this state. We tried to supply this demand by getting such indexes of up-to-date legislation as were published, by getting the bills from other states as well as the documents explanatory of legislative movements in other states, and arranging these under the subjects so they would be immediately at the service of all who desired to see them. We soon found that even this material did not solve the problem. We found it necessary to clip newspapers from all over the country and put the clippings in book form, to carefully index them and put them also with the subjects. We went over our own bills, and carefully indexed

them back for four sessions and by noting the subjects which were contained in those bills we anticipated the problems with which the legislature had to grapple. These problems or special subjects we carefully worked up through the most minute detail. It was comparatively easy to get laws and court cases, but it was a far harder job to find how those laws were administered and to find the weaknesses in them and to note as far as possible how they could be adapted to our use here.

Our short experience has taught us many things. We have been convinced because of the success of our work and our methods that there is a great opportunity to better legislation through work of this kind. We are convinced that the best way to better legislation is to help directly the man who makes the laws. We bring home to him and near to him everything which will help him grasp and understand the great economic problems of the day in their fullest significance and the legislative remedies which can be applied and the legislative limitations which exist. We must take the theory of the professors and simplify it so that the ordinary layman can grasp it immediately and with the greatest ease. The ordinary legislator has no time to read. His work is new to him, he is beset with routine work, he has to have conferences with his friends upon political matters, he is beset by office-seekers and lobbyists and he has no time to study. If he does not study or get his studying done for him he will fall an easy prey to those who are looking out to better their own selfish ends. Therefore we must shorten and digest and make clear all information that we put within his reach. This is a tremendous task, but not an impossible one. We must first of all get near to the legislator, even as the lobbyist does. I do not mean that we must use the evil methods of the lobbyist, but we must win his confidence and his friendship and understand him and his prejudices. We study him just as the lobbyist does. Above all, we must not be arrogant, presumptive, opinionated or dogmatic. We are dealing with men who are as a rule keen and bright, who as a rule have made a success of business life. We must always remember that we are but clerks and servants who are helping these men to gather data upon things upon which we have worked as they have worked at their business. We must be careful to keep our private opinions to ourselves and let the evidence speak for itself. We are not doing this work to convert, but to help and to

clear up. No busy man can keep track of legislation, and especially the complex legislation of our modern times in one state, not to let alone half a hundred states. It is our work to do that—to find out the history of particular pieces of legislation, to find out how a law works, to get the opinions of just lawyers, professors, doctors, publicists upon these laws and to put their opinions well digested in such form that it can be readily used and understood by any legislator even in the whirl and confusion of the legislative session.

In answer to constant inquiries I have compiled some essentials for work in helping the cause of good legislation, similar to the work done by our department here.

1. The first essential is a selected library convenient to the legislative halls. This library should consist of well chosen and selected material. A large library is apt to fail because of its too general nature and because it is liable to become cumbersome. This library should be a depository for documents of all descriptions relating to any phase of legislation from all states, federal government and particularly from foreign countries like England, Australia, France, Germany and Canada. It should be a place where one can get a law upon any subject or a case upon any law very quickly. It is very convenient to have this room near to a good law library. Books are generally behind the times, and newspaper clippings from all over the country and magazine articles, court briefs and letters must supplement this library and compose to a large extent tis material.

2. A trained librarian and indexer is absolutely essential. The material is largely scrappy and hard to classify. We need a person with a liberal education, who is original, not stiff, who can meet an emergency of all cases and who is tactful as well.

3. The material is arranged so that it is compact and accessible. Do not be afraid to tear up books, documents, pamphlets, clippings, letters, manuscripts or other material. Minutely index this material. Put it under the subjects. Legislators have no time to read large books. We have no time to hunt up many references in different parts of a library. They should be together as far as possible upon every subject of legislative importance.

4. Complete index of all bills which have not become laws in the past should be kept. This saves the drawing of new bills and makes the experience of the past cumulative.

5. Records of vetoes, special messages, political platforms, political literature, and other handy matter should be carefully noted and arranged. Our legislator often wants to get a bill through and we must remember that he often relies as much upon political or unscientific arguments as we do upon scientific work. He should be able to get hold of his political arguments if he wants to, and the political literature from all parties upon all questions should be kept near at hand.

6. Digests of laws on every subject before the legislature should be made and many copies kept. Leading cases on all these laws and opinions of public men and experts upon the working of these laws or upon the defects, technical or otherwise, should be carefully indexed and as far as possible published in pamphlet form, with short bibliographies of the subjects most before the people.

7. The department must be entirely non-political and non-partisan or else it will be worse than useless. If you have the choice between establishing a political department and no department at all take the latter.

8. The head of the department should be trained in economics, political science, and social science in general, and should have also a good knowledge of constitutional law. He should, above all, have tact and knowledge of human nature.

9. There should be a trained draftsman connected with the department—a man who is a good lawyer and something more than a lawyer, a man who has studied legislative forms, who can draw a bill, revise a statute, and amend a bill when called upon to do so. Such a man working right with this department and the critical data which it contains will be absolutely essential.

10. Methods—(a) Go right to the legislator, make yourself acquainted with him, study him, find anything he wants for him, never mind how trivial, accommodate him in every way. Advertise your department. Let everyone know where it is and what it does. Go to the committees and tell them what you can do for them. (b) It is absolutely essential that you get information ahead of time or else you will be of no use in the rush. Send a circular letter out to your legislators and tell them you will get any material which will help them in their work before the session is over. The following is a sample of such a circular sent out by this department:

MADISON, WIS., Nov. 20, 1904.

DEAR SIR: The Wisconsin Legislature of 1901 authorized the Wisconsin Free Library Commission to conduct a Legislative Reference Room, and to gather and index for the use of members of the legislature and the executive officers of the state such books, reports, bills, documents and other material from this and other states as would aid them in their official duties.

The Legislative Reference Library was entirely destroyed by fire, but much of value to the student of state affairs has been collected. We desire to make such material of the utmost use and wish you to call upon us for any aid we can give in your legislative duties.

If you will inform us of any subjects you wish to investigate, as far as we have the material, time and means, we will tell you:

1. What states have passed laws on any particular subject.
2. Where bills for similar laws are under discussion.
3. What bills on any subject have been recently introduced in our legislature.
4. Where valuable discussions of any subject may be obtained.

As far as possible, with our limited force and means, we will send you abstracts of useful material and answer any questions pertaining to legislative matters.

It is not our province to convince members of the legislature upon disputed points. We shall simply aid them to get material to study subjects in which they are interested as public officials.

Make your questions definite. Our work is entirely free, non-partisan, and non-political, and entirely confidential.

The replies to such a circular give you an idea of what is coming. Work for all you are worth on those topics, send out thousands of circular letters to experts on these topics, subscribe to clipping bureaus if necessary to secure critical data from the public at large. Gather statistics ahead. Carefully search books for significant and concise statements; if to the point copy out or tear them out and index them. Go through the court reports and get the best opinions. (c) Get hold of libraries or individuals or professors in other states with whom you can correspond. Speed in getting things to a committee or an individual is absolutely necessary. Do not fail to use the telegraph. Get material, facts, data, etc., and get it quickly and get it to the point, boil down and digest. I can say again, the legislator does not know much about technical terms; avoid them, make things simple and clear. (d) Employ if you can during the session a good statistician. He can be of great service in dealing

with financial bills, in estimating accidents from machinery, or in gathering statistical data of any kind. He should be a man who can work rapidly and accurately and work to the point. Throughout all of his work it is absolutely necessary to get all material absolutely upon the points at issue. (e) Make arrangements with all libraries in your city and libraries elsewhere for the loan of books or other material. You should have every sort of an index in your library as well as catalogs of any of the libraries with which you are corresponding. (f) A correspondent clerk and some helper to paste clippings, mount letters, etc., are necessary, especially during the legislative session. (g) Keep your place open from early in the morning till late at night. Do everything in your power to accommodate those for whom you work.

I believe that every such library established should try to specialize on one great division of legislation. If one place studies municipal government especially and another labor legislation it would be a very useful arrangement, as one could go directly to that library having the most expert knowledge on one subject. Of course a journal of comparative legislation is necessary to bring this work into co-ordination in the future. In conclusion I will say that this department in Wisconsin cost $1500 a year for the first year and $2500 a year for the last two years, and now has an appropriation of $4500 a year. The cost is so insignificant because documents are on the whole very cheap, and especially because we are near the state law library and the state historical society which kindly lend us much of their material.

In conclusion, I believe that this work has a decided effect upon good legislation in Wisconsin. I can say truthfully that it is popular with all the members of the legislature. We have drawn or amended probably two hundred bills in this department. We have answered thirty or forty questions a day upon various topics. It is not so easy now for a man to make a false statement before a committee on any matter, as the material is apt to be sent to this department and looked into carefully. The legislator can hold his head up and speak out for himself because there is always some place to go where he is sure that he can get aid in looking up matters. He does not have to depend upon what people tell him who are interested in different bills. He can easily investigate for himself and consequently there is more balance in legislation than formerly.

Trained experts formerly put forth overpowering arguments. There was no means to answer them or no way or time to work them up. Now there is, and the legislator can look up the truth or untruth of every statement if he so desires. Committees, too, cover a good share of their investigation of the worth of bills investigated by this department. Committees working upon abstracts and technical subjects will have at their hand in concise form letters and opinions from all over the country from expert men. Science and theory have for the first time come to the help of the struggling legislator in a practical way.

ADMINISTRATION AND USE OF A LAW LIBRARY

The field taken by Mr. Frank Bixby Gilbert in this article delivered before the American Library Association in 1907, is that of the American Association of Law Libraries, consisting of those connected with educational institutions and associations.

Mr. Gilbert was born in Bainbridge, N.Y., educated at Hamilton College, and admitted to the bar. He has held several New York state positions, including that of state law librarian, and is now deputy commissioner of education and counsel to the state education department.

The Law Library

There is no class of men, professional or otherwise, so dependent upon books as the lawyers. There is no library, of whatsoever kind or nature, which so directly pertains to the interests which it is designed to serve, as the law library. I am speaking with authority when I say that the lawyer's books are his tools, without which he would be unable to provide for himself and his family. Courts of last resort of good standing in our country have expressly classed law books with the brick mason's trowel and spirit level and declared that, like them, they could not be sold under an execution process issued to enforce the payment of a judgment which even the astute lawyer debtor could not avoid.

Lenoir v. Weeks, 20 Ga., 596.

Lambeth v. Milton, 2. Robinson (La.). 81.

The law library fitted with the tools essential to the lawyer's vocation, becomes therefore the lawyer's workshop. It is here that he solves the intricate problems which his more or less extended clientage has presented for his consideration, and precedents to do battle with a similarly equipped opponent. From the time when he first sees visions of courts and juries

bending to the force of his matchless logic, he is the habitant of the law library, either in the office of his preceptor, in the college of his choice, or in the institution where he is privileged to read. The books contain the law which he is to practice and apply. His familiarity with them, his ability to absorb their contents and still retain his normal power of mental digestion, bespeaks for him the success which he hopes for and expects.

I am not to speak of the law library that every lawyer must possess. There are many of these which in size, completeness and efficiency compare favorably with those supported by associated interests or at the expense of the public. The American Association of Law Libraries, an organization recently affiliated with this Association, and which I have the honor to represent at this meeting, is confined in its membership to those who have to do with law libraries maintained and administered for the benefit of the bench, the bar and the school, at the expense of the public or of those who are entitled to the privileges afforded. These law libraries readily group themselves into five classes: (1) the state law library; (2) the court law library; (3) the association law library; (4) the law school library; (5) the law library maintained by private enterprise with privileges leased to lawyers at a fixed rental. Each class has its own purpose to serve, its own special objects to attain; but the character of the books collected does not materially differ. All of them have to do with the law, and the law, in its literature at least, is fixed and determinable.

It may be appropriate at this point to consider in a somewhat elementary manner, the material which enters into the make up of a law library. The law has been classified as *lex scripta* and *lex non scripta;* that which is written and that which is unwritten. This classification is of little value to the law librarians. To him it is all written, printed and bound in much the same manner. To avoid confusion it is much better to discard this classification and substitute for it the division of law into statute law and court made, or case law. The foundation of every law library is in the statute and the judicial decision. Every law book owes its existence to either the one or the other, or both. Statute law finds expression in codes, compiled statutes and sessional laws; judicial decisions are contained in law reports, and cataloged and classified in law

digests; while both are made the subjects of discussion and treatment in so called law treatises.

In the time of Lord Bacon all English law was contained in sixty volumes of law reports and as many more of statutes; it is said that the industrious Bacon found these too burdensome and suggested to his Sovereign, King James the First, that a digest be compiled of all these laws, "and that these books should be purged and revised, whereby they may be reduced to fewer volumes and clearer resolutions." These days he would have been a fitting leader in a movement for reform in our system of law reporting. Nearly 300 years have passed since then; there has been frequent revision, many digests, but very little purging.

Every law librarian will testify as to the almost unsurmountable obstacles in the way of acquiring a complete collection of the statute law of the several states and of the United States. Many of the earlier state sessional laws are exceedingly rare and expensive, while the colonial laws of the original 13 colonies are in many instances practically unobtainable. I have no means of ascertaining the exact number of volumes of American statute law, or how much they would cost. But a fairly complete collection would comprise nearly 3,000 volumes. If a collection of the statute law of Great Britain and its colonies were acquired, at least 1,500 volumes more would be added. These collections are sought for by the larger law libraries, and are deemed indispensable in those maintaining legislative reference departments. In libraries located in cosmopolitan centers, extensive collections of foreign continental statute law are also desirable.

While the legislatures everywhere are excessively busy in enacting innumerable laws, the courts are even busier in explaining what these laws mean, and in declaring what the law is as to subjects in respect to which legislatures have not seen fit to legislate. The written opinions of the federal and state courts are reported, whether officially or unofficially. If the court is an appellate court of last resort, an official reporter is usually appointed whose duty it is to prepare the opinions of the judges for publication. Special series of reports are published by private enterprise containing selected cases on important subjects, or opinions of judges not officially reported. Law reports comprise the chief collection in every law library.

The nucleus of this collection in every American law library is the reports of cases decided in federal and state courts of the United States. In the year 1850 these cases were reported in 980 volumes. In 1865 there were 1820 of such volumes, an average yearly increase of about 55. In 1880 this number had grown to 3230, there being an annual increase of 94. In 1895 the number of volumes of these reports had further increased to 6300, at the annual rate of 205. In the years from 1895 to the present time the annual rate of increase has been 260, so that at the present time there are 9300 volumes of American law reports. In addition to these reports law libraries are required to collect the reports of the courts of Great Britain and its colonies. The extent of this collection will vary according to the resources available. A complete collection of English, Irish and Scotch law reports comprises about 3400 volumes, more than half of which were in existence in 1866, since which time the law reports have been regularly published under the authority of the Council of law reporting, to the discouragement, though not exclusion, of special series of unofficial reports. A practically complete collection of Canadian law reports consists of about 800 volumes. This collection is desirable for law libraries in the states because of the similar conditions existing in the Canadian provinces. About 1,000 volumes of the law reports of the other British colonies have been published. The total number of law reports in Great Britain and its provinces thus approximates 5,200 volumes, which added to the number of American reports already referred to, exceeds the grand total of 14,500 volumes of English written law reports. There may not be a single law library in this country which possesses all these reports; indeed some of them are now of little importance and have ceased to be of value as authorities. There are, however, a few law libraries in this country which have practically complete collections of them; many more have the reports of all the appellate courts of the several states, and the reports of common law courts of England, together with the law reports of the different divisions of the Supreme court of judicature. Even these are very numerous, so that it may be said that a law library which seeks practical efficiency must find a place for at least 7,000 volumes of these reports.

Thus does the unwritten law find expression in numberless volumes. The progressive ratio of the annual increase in the

published law reports furnishes plenty of food for thought, and presents problems which must ultimately be solved by the courts and the lawyers. But law librarians are not much concerned therein. It is for them to take the books as they are published, and so dispose of them as to make them readily available.

But the effect of this constantly increasing accumulation of law material upon the future of law libraries will prove interesting. It is apparent that it will soon be beyond the means of even the prosperous lawyer to collect for his individual use the reports of all the courts which are recognized as ruling authorities within the jurisdiction in which he practices. Already in our populous centers the owners of buildings occupied by lawyers are supplying their tenants with the use of valuable collections of law books. The increased cost of maintaining large private law libraries, with the expense attendant upon the shelving of the books contained therein, which is no inconsiderable item in cities where the annual rental value of suitable offices is frequently in excess of $3 a square foot of floor space, will soon force lawyers to pool their interests and establish in conveniently accessible quarters cooperative law libraries equipped with the most modern working tools of their trade, and manned by experts in the science of finding the law. Existing publicly supported and association law libraries will become more important adjuncts in the lawyer's professional life; and those in charge of them will become more essential elements in the administration of the law. The day of the law librarian as a mere keeper of law books is now past. Knack of arrangement and classification with knowledge of the art of book binding are not now sufficient to constitute a competent law librarian. He must be a capable guide to the user of his library; a well trained expert in the learned science of how to find the law.

The lawyer of to-day is a case lawyer; he knows his facts and seeks to apply thereto the law as declared by some court of competent jurisdiction. In this immense maze of reported judicial determinations he may well think there is a case with facts like his which, if found, will be conclusive upon the tribunal which he seeks to convince. He starts on his hunt, and the law librarian must aid him in his search. In making the search every available law tool is brought into use. Text books

digests, cyclopedias and tables of cited cases are to be consulted. These are for the most part the means to the end that the much sought for case may be found.

Law text books or treatises, as now written are expositions of the law as found in statutes and reported cases. The modern law writer does not often state his individual opinion as to what the law is or should be, and if he should, the lawyer who read would be inquisitive as to the authority upon which the statement was based. Kent, Story and Greenleaf are frequently cited as authorities equally as weighty as reported opinions of eminent judges; but they wrote after long service in judicial positions, at a time when reported cases were comparatively few. They declared the law as adjudicated and as they thought it should be, and did it so well that courts have often based their opinions upon what they said, thus giving their statements the mark of judicial approval. There are a few others who might be mentioned in the same class. But few of our modern law treatises are written with a view of declaring the law independent of statutory or judicial authority. Their only purpose is to point the way to the statute or decision with a bearing upon the chosen subject. They are therefore in their effect nothing else than specialized digests, more or less carefully analyzed, of the decided cases, and are only cited to show what has been declared to be the law by court or legislature. It is not intended to belittle their importance or value. They are substantial aids in tracing the cases which establish the principle desired to be asserted or applied. They must be wisely selected with a view of promoting the interests which the law library is designed to serve.

The million and a half or more cases reported in the 15,000 volumes of law reports would be of comparatively little value were it not for the commendable industry of law editors in digesting those cases and classifying them under more or less arbitrary headings, alphabetically arranged. These digests are the law librarian's subject catalog of reported law cases, prepared fortunately for his use outside of the library by his enterprising friend, the law publisher. The increase in the number of cases has relatively increased the size of the digests. A digest of all the reported cases decided in state and federal courts down to and including the year 1896 is contained in 50 large royal octavo volumes of at least 1,500 pages each; 18

volumes of supplements to this edition have been issued covering the years from 1897 to 1906 inclusive. This is a comprehensive publication covering the whole field of American law reports; in addition to this, each state has its own digests of law cases, and every series of reports containing especially collected cases is supplemented at intervals by digests.

The cyclopedic treatment of law is a comparatively new development in the realm of legal literature. This is an exceedingly ambitious effort to classify the whole body of the law under appropriate heads, arranged alphabetically. The several subjects considered are more or less carefully analyzed with the co-relative principles grouped and stated concisely without editorial elaboration; the notes cite the cases upon which the statements of the text are based. The result produced is a legal work occupying the field between that of the text book and the digest. Such a work, if accurately done, if at once full, precise and correct, will be of the greatest value. While not in any sense superseding special treatises upon different branches of the law, or digests of law reports, it will, by facilitating, save labor. As stated aptly by the late James C. Carter of the New York City bar, in describing the possibilities of such an undertaking:

"It would refresh the failing memory, reproduce in the mind its forgotten acquisitions, exhibit the body of the law so as to enable a view to be had of the whole, and of the relations of the several parts, and tend to establish and make familiar a uniform nomenclature."

Statutes, reports, digests, text books and cyclopedias are the books which comprise the law library; how best to make them available and to promote such a use of them that the purposes for which they were created may be attained, is properly the law librarian's object in official life. The law library is almost in every sense a reference library. The use demands that the books be placed in open shelves, so that they may be accessible to all. Scientific classification, decimally or otherwise, is peculiarly inappropriate, because unnecessary and confusing. Law reports are published serially, each volume with a number; they are arranged on the shelves alphabetically, according to the state or country in which the courts are situated. Every text book professes on its label to be somebody's treatise on some important subject, thus inviting classification and citation by

the name of the author, rather than the subject. A great English judge wrote learnedly on the law of bills and notes, so that Byles on Bills is a familiar title in the bibliography of every law library, and needs no mystic number to bring it from the shelves. It may thus be seen that arrangement and classification of law books are not complex. The lawyers have troubles enough in finding what they want without adding to their burdens by compelling them to master the intricacies of an ingeniously devised system of classification.

There are law libraries whose chief aim is to make complete collections of law literature without regard to practical use or adaptability. These have exhaustless resources at their command and are rapidly becoming the museums of rare and obsolete law books. It is indeed fortunate that such institutions exist; their value as educational factors must not be underestimated. But the working law librarian in charge of a library founded on a basis of utility and maintained to aid the court, the lawyer, the legislature or the student, has not the time or the means to indulge his longing to collect. He must get what his library needs to carry out the purposes for which it was organized. He must be familiar with the books upon his shelves, and know their uses, so that he may direct the search for the well hidden legal principles. He should be in touch with the trend of judicial and legislative thought. He may or he may not be a lawyer, but like the lawyer, he should know where to find the law. This is the science of the law librarian; if he is not expert in it, he is like the mountain guide who seeks to lead where he has not climbed.

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION

Among the first libraries to become affiliated with the Special Libraries Association was this public service library, representative of an important type. This article, by its librarian, Robert Harvey Whitten, published in *Special Libraries,* gives the scope and workings of a library organized to collect and index material that may be wanted on a great variety of subjects, using a collection of some eight thousand books and pamphlets. Dr. Whitten's life is noticed on page 439.

The Public Service Commission for the First District, has jurisdiction in New York City over gas and electric companies, railroads and street railroads, including under the Rapid Transit Act the laying out of rapid transit routes the preparation and supervision of contracts for construction and operation, and in certain cases the granting of franchises. The surface, elevated and subway companies in New York City carry annually over 1,300,000,000 passengers, which exceeds by more than 66 per cent. the total number of passengers carried on the steam railroads of the entire country. The gas companies of the city produce more than 20 per cent. of the entire gas output of the United States.

The problems coming before the commission in relation to rates, service, equipment and subway construction are numerous and important, and involve in many cases the working out of new methods and the laying down of policies of tremendous importance. The commission has a staff of over 600 employes. About 300 of these are the engineers, draftsmen and inspectors engaged directly in the work of subway planning and construction. The commission has drawn into its service highly trained statisticians, economists, accountants, lawyers and engineers of all kinds.

As a tool for the use of this large organization it has estab-

lished an office library. The library is intended to be a working office collection of books, pamphlets and periodical articles needed in the current work of the commission and in the consideration of the various questions that come before it. The library aims to collect and index material in such a thorough and scientific way that when information is wanted in relation to car brakes, gas meters, franchise terms, Paris subways, etc., the material from which the desired information may be secured will be at hand. The library now contains some 2,600 volumes and 5,400 pamphlets, making the total collection 8,000.

Selection and Collection of Material: In a special office library, great care must be taken in the selection and collection of material. Selection must be exhaustive but discriminating. All possible sources must be searched for useful material, but just as great care must be exercised to exclude material not needed. The efficiency of the collection is reduced by every useless book it contains. It is often a doubtful question as to whether a particular book should be added to the collection, and an even more troublesome question as to whether a book now on the shelves should be discarded. The librarian must use his best judgment. He will make mistakes both in original selection and in discarding, but it must be done.

In the library of the Public Service Commission we examine regularly the Publisher's Weekly, and the lists of the United States and parliamentary publications. We get track of most of the books and pamphlets desired, however, by a rather careful perusal of a number of technical journals that relate to public utilities. Among the most important are Electric Railway Journal, Light Railway and Tramway Journal, Electrical World, Engineering News, Progressive Age. Here we find references to the annual reports of the various public utility companies of American and European cities and to many printed papers and special reports, official or unofficial, relating to public utilities. The lists published by Stone & Webster and the current bibbliographies in the Journal of Political Economy and American Political Science Review and the Economic Quarterly are also useful. Much material has been obtained by writing directly to American consuls and to the public officers and company officials in the large cities of the world.

But as important as are the books, the pamphlets and special reports, they are outranked in value by the periodical

article. In the numerous general, economic, law and technical periodicals of this and other countries there are many articles of the utmost importance in the routine work of the commission and in the consideration of the various problems that come before it. The library receives some 25 periodicals that are systematically examined, for articles and material of use to the commission. In addition we examine the index to legal literature contained in the Law Library Journal, the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature and most important of all, the Engineering Index. The Engineering Index is a monthly annotated index of the more important articles appearing in some 200 American and European technical journals. The publishers of the Index undertake to supply copies of the articles listed. This is a great convenience, especially in securing copies of articles in foreign periodicals. As soon as the Index is received it is checked up and an order sent in for copies of all the articles of special interest.

Classification. A special library will usually require a special classification. The standard classifications are all right for the smaller public libraries. Standard classifications have been specially designed to meet the requirements of a general collection. They are usually a sad misfit when applied to a special library. The special working collection is intended to serve very definite needs and is required to answer certain definite problems. The purpose of the classification is to aid in supplying desired information with speed and certainty. The resources of the library must be classified around the special problems that are to be solved. "Close" classification is also essential. There should be a special heading or subheading in the classification for practically every subject, no matter how minute, concerning which information will be frequently wanted.

The classification that we have worked out in the library of the Public Service Commission is extremely simple. The broad subjects are arranged alphabetically. Subheadings are arranged alphabetically under the main heading. States and countries are arranged alphabetically and cities alphabetically under the state or country. The alphabet is much in evidence. The scheme has the advantage of fitting in well with an alphabetic catalogue.

A feature of the classification is the system of uniform interchangeable headings and subheadings. Certain subheadings

are used uniformly under each of the main utility headings and certain main headings are used also as subheadings. Thus "Accidents" appears as a main heading and also as a subheading under "Gas," "Electricity," "Transit," "Railroads," etc.

The notation used in the classification is a combination of letters and figures. Letters of the alphabet are used to represent all headings other than regional; e. g., Fr, Franchise; Ra, Railroad; Ga, Gas, etc. Regional headings are represented by Arabic numerals. States and countries are always designated by 2 figures and cities by 3 figures. These numerals are read as decimals though the decimal point is uniformly omitted; e. g., 401 Boston follows 40 Massachusetts and precedes 41 Michigan. The same notation means the same thing wherever it occurs. Ac always means Accidents, whether as a main heading or as a subheading; e. g., Ac, Accidents; GaAc, Gas-Accidents; RaAc, Railroads-Accidents, etc. The same number is always used for a given city or country wherever it occurs in the classification; Ga401, Gas-Boston; Ra401, Railroads-Boston, etc.

The above are some of the main features of the classification. They are subject, however, to numerous elaborations, modifications and exceptions.

Arrangement of Material: All magazines, clippings and pamphlets are kept in large vertical file drawers. The clippings are usually placed in manila folders. They are arranged under exactly the same headings as the books on the shelves. Under each heading they are arranged chronologically according to year of publication. Each article, or pamphlet has a separate file number, corresponding to the book number in the case of volumes on the shelves.

Of the 25 periodicals received, only 6 are bound. Articles of interest from periodicals that we do not bind are clipped, put in folders and placed in the vertical file drawers. The same treatment is also applied to the numerous special copies of periodicals not taken regularly, but which are purchased because they contain some article of interest. The verticle file drawers keep the material free from dust and offer a maximum of convenience in consultation. The material is compact and can be easily and quickly consulted.

Catalogue. The card catalogue is in three main divisions, each alphabetically arranged:

First—Author and title.

Second—Subject headings.

Third—Regional headings.

The subject headings used in the classification are retained in the catalogue and used in their various combinations. Magazine articles and pamphlets are catalogued just as fully as books, and the cards for the articles are placed in the catalogue with the cards for the books. Chapters or parts of books relating to specific subjects are separately catalogued. A feature of the catalogue is the complete entry under the regional heading. Every subject entry relating to a particular city or country is duplicated under the city or country heading. We find it a great convenience to be able to find everything we have relating to Paris, for example, together under that heading.

We try to realize that it is not so much particular books or sets of books that we need to classify and index as it is the specific information contained in the books. Our catalogue is not used nearly so frequently to find the location of a particular book as it is to find information in regard to some particular subject. The more specialized a library becomes the more important, as well as practicable it becomes to classify and index information rather than books or sets of books.

Bulletins and Publicity: A library bulletin is issued once or twice a week containing references to current books, articles and pamphlets received by the library. Each bulletin is a single sheet. It is mimeographed and sent out to about 250 officers and employes of the Commission. The person receiving the bulletin checks in the margin the books or articles he desires to see, signs his name to the sheet and returns it to the library. On receipt of this sheet at the library, the book or article desired is sent if available, and if not, the name of the applicant is placed on a reserve list. Often it seems desirable to bring a particular article or book to the special attention of some officer or employe. To do this the item in quesuion is stamped in red with a rubber stamp marked "special" on the copy sent to the particular person in question. An article or book that will probably be of interest to but one or two or three persons is omitted from the bulletin and is sent directly to the individuals

interested with a blank form stating that it is being transmitted for inspection and the request to return as soon as possible. In these ways we attempt to carry out the recognized function of the office library, that of bringing promptly to the attention of the officers and employes of the Commission the new books and the articles of interest in connection with their official duties.

The bulletin is a notable success in directly increasing the use of the library. It also has a publicity feature. It is a constant reminder of the existence of the Library and of the nature of the material that may be found there. The office library is an innovation and the habit of turning to it for information must be acquired. Various forms of publicity should be resorted to, to aid the development of the library habit. I think we could and should do more in this direction than we have in the past.

Reference Lists: Numerous special reference lists are prepared from time to time on subjects of special interest. Our close classification, analytic catalogue entries and combined periodical and book catalogue make the preparation of special reference lists much simpler. Often all that is required is a straight copy of the catalogue entries.

Blue Print Methods: We are experimenting on a new form of catalogue that promises certain distinct advantages. The catalogue entries on each subject are arranged chronologically and copied on letter size onion skin paper. This makes a negative from which a blue print may be taken. A single sheet or sheets being devoted to each subject, it is possible to add future accessions to the original sheet without the necessity of recopying. We can thus have always an up-to-date catalogue on loose sheets. It is of course easier to consult a catalogue with five to twenty entries on each page than to finger over the cards in a card catalogue. Another advantage will be that we can make portions of the catalogue available in the various bureaus of the Commission. Thus we can supply the Franchise bureau with a loose leaf always up-to-date catalogue of franchise material, the bureau of Statistics and Accounts with a catalogue of accounts, finance and statistics, and similarly for the various other bureaus and departments. Another advantage will be that we can always supply a blue

print copy of any part or parts of the catalogue. It seems probable that these will in large measure take the place of the special reference lists that we have been preparing. A reference list is out of date as soon as it is made. The advantage of having available an always up-to-date list is evident.

Collection of Information: The library also compiles data on various subjects, and particularly in relation to public utility supervision and conditions in other states and cities. To a considerable extent, the qualifications essential for the scientific selection and collection of material are the same as those required for the compilation of the information contained in the material. These functions are therefore combined and the library, so far particularly as conditions in other states and cities are concerned, both collects and collates information. Thus detailed reports have been prepared in relation to the supervision of street railways in England and Prussia, the subway system of Paris and the laws and experience of various cities in relation to the indeterminate franchise and in relation to profit sharing as a method of franchise compensation. Numerous brief comparative statements have also been prepared. Much of our most valuable information has been drawn from the laws, methods and experience of the great cities of Europe.

I think that this combination of library work and collation or investigation is a practical one. The librarian gains an intimate knowledge of the contents of the material in his collection. His direct use of the material shows him the weak places in it and enables him to fill up the missing portions that are so absolutely essential to an efficient working collection. Active use of his collection helps the librarian, moreover, to get away from the habit of looking at the book as the unit of library work. It helps him to a realization that it is facts and information that it is his function to classify, arrange and make readily available rather than particular books or sets of books.

Quick Service: The necessity for quick service is a fundamental and all sufficient reason for the existence of the special library. Information to be of use in the every-day work of the world must be quickly available. Quick service multiplies use—this is as true of libraries as it is of transit systems. The importance of quick service should therefore condition and

mould the entire organization of the special or office library, its classification, arrangement and cataloguing.

In the development of a special library emphasis needs to be laid on these two things: First, the necessity for quick service, and, second, that the service rendered is for the purpose of giving information and that the library is not merely dealing in copies or titles of books and articles. While we hold these ideals in the library of which I am speaking, we still lack much of their complete realization.

LIBRARY OF STONE AND WEBSTER, BOSTON

Shortly after Dr. Whitten's article (just preceding) appeared in *Special Libraries,* another was published in which George Winthrop Lee, librarian of Stone and Webster, the engineering and contracting firm, compared his library point by point with that of the Public Service Commission. A fuller account by Mr. Lee was published as a pamphlet by the company. It was the first record we have of such a library. We omit the introductory paragraph, containing a summary of Mr. Whitten's article.

Mr. Lee was born in Roxbury, Massachusetts in 1867, and has been with Stone and Webster since 1894, serving as librarian since 1900. He is a writer on business libraries and allied interests and has been especially active in advocating a "sponsorship for knowledge"—an extension and specialization of the informational side of libraries.

The Stone & Webster Library has been built up in the interests of an organization, likewise, having to do with public utilities; more especially, however, their financing, constructing and operating. It has a collection of books, periodicals and pamphlets to the number of about 5,000, perhaps two-thirds as many as the N. Y. Public Service Commission; but, as this article goes to press, much material is in process of being discarded because superseded, or not timely for our present purposes, or because available elsewhere in the vicinity.

Selection and Collection of Material. Our book selection is made from reviews and announcements in periodicals, from publishers' lists, from the recommendations of various members of the organization and from monthly visits to the Boston Public Library, where such books of possible interest to us as may be available are looked over, and whence some are brought

to the office to be especially considered. The system is susceptible of improvement, and in this connection mention may be made of the proposal to establish in Boston a depository for new books. If the plan goes through it is hoped that publishers from far and wide will co-operate by sending one copy of each of their new publications as fast as they appear. Under present circumstances the chances that many of the books we need escape our attention for an indefinite period are very large. Our disposing of superseded and unnecessary books is partially achieved through a monthly auction, which means that a large number are given away or are carried off as waste. It has been suggested that one of the functions of the Boston Branch of the Special Libraries Association might well be to operate a clearing house of books wanted and for sale in this vicinity.

We follow the periodical literature bearing upon our interests and depend very largely upon the items we list therefrom. Our Current Literature References for 1907 and 1908, in pamphlet form, and our supplementary card index to date, together with such aids as the Readers' Guide and the Engineering Index, avail us for many subjects of reference. In contrast to the P. S. C. Library, we seldom send for copies of articles listed in the Engineering Index, finding that most of the references that we need are in the journals we subscribe for or are otherwise obtainable; also, we clip comparatively little, probably less than we could to advantage clip. We do, however, clip and paste away in monthly succession the various groups of items in that Index. These we maintain in a vertical filing cabinet until succeeded by their annual volume.

Classification. Our classification is quite different from that of the Public Service Commission, though should we start again I am not sure but that we should copy theirs almost in every essential.

Dr. Whitten's mnemonic notation, like Fr. for Franchise, Ga Ac for Gas Accidents, is an obvious convenience; so also his combination of geography and subject, as Ra401 for Railroads—Boston. Our classification starts geographically, i. e., 1100, Maine; 1200, New Hampshire, etc.; 1460, the region of Boston; 1461, Boston; 6131, Seattle, etc. Then follows the decimal point, and to the right of it comes the classification by company and by subject. Company numbers hardly concern the books, so

that the latter usually have a "o" after the decimal. Thus .01 signifies propositions (seldom used for books); .02, statistics; .03, legal affairs, etc.; .07 and its ramifications for engineering. The laws of Washington State would thus have the number 6100.03, while a book on electrical engineering, which defies the geographical classification, would have the number to the left of the decimal omitted. The system was originally devised for the Library and the Filing Department combined, but today, when these are separate, the numbers to the right of the decimal often prove conspicuously unsatisfactory for the book classification. A pamphlet issued in 1907, entitled "The Library and the Business Man," describes the system in use at that time and suggests most of the underlying principles of the system, even though changed in various details to meet the needs of today. Copies of this pamphlet are still available for those who may be interested in the subject.

Our periodical classification has been considerably modified since the description in the pamphlet, but it follows largely the headings of the Engineering Index and is proving particularly efficient for putting-away purposes. Some one hundred references a week are thus written and filed away. Civil Engineering falls in the 10's; Electrical Engineering in the 20's, while 90 covers the considerable Miscellany. As an instance in detail, 50 covers Railway Affairs; 54, Electric Railway Construction, Equipment and Operation; 54f, Shops, Plants, etc.; 54f3, Substations. I can readily understand that Dr. Whitten might use the letters "Sb St" for substations, which should certainly be easier to remember than our number. Recently, however, I have been working upon a system of cross-tying the classification, which bids fair to help the memory and hasten the work. By using this decimal point to indicate "aspects," we have under 71a, which refers to societies, 71a.1 for Civil Engineering Societies; 71a.2 for Electrical Engineering Societies; 71a.3 for Mechanical Engineering Societies; 71a.9, Miscellaneous Societies. On this analogy, should occasion require, we could use 71a.54f3 for a society which devoted itself to the study of substations. It seems to be the conclusion of most special libraries that each special library needs its own classification, and, therefore, I would say, "Come and talk it over before you go very far on your own tack, to get from us who have established systems some suggestions that may prove of decided help to you."

A further improvement recently effected, which is after Dr. Whitten's system, but which will not have been thoroughly tried out before this article goes to press, is to use the small letters of the alphabet to indicate certain topics in which we are particularly interested, viz., b, bibliography; e, electric railways; m, money and banking; p, power stations; s, statistics; t, tables, charts and formulae, etc., etc., the whole alphabet thus being used for mnemonic short cuts. These brevities would thus allow the use of a notation such as e82d for electric railways in Massachusetts. Furthermore, by combining these with the geographical figures that we have been using for our book files, e82d61 could be used for electric railways in Boston.

Arrangement of Material. Dr. Whitten's magazine clippings and pamphlets are kept in vertical filing drawers. We subscribe for about 60 and we receive about 150, some 50 of which are bound, subject to retrenchment in the measures we are now taking for greater efficiency. In addition to the indexes bound in with each volume we have a duplicate set for many of the journals, so that time and nervous energy are frequently saved by referring to special "loose-leaf" volumes of indexes. This index set is likely to be developed further, so that we may maintain indexes to publications that we do not bind.

Catalogue. Our card catalogue as it is being changed to date has its shelf list (arranged by the geographical and subject numbers) and its alphabetical list, in which subjects and authors are run together. We do not cross-reference so highly nor make so many cards in duplicate as does the Public Service Commission Library, but we have laid plans for a library catalogue in book or pamphlet form which will be, also, a source of information handbook. We realize that books need to be analyzed, and that many a book contains several monographs which should each be treated as books in themselves. This problem is, of course, quite universally felt by librarians, but we have not yet advanced sufficiently far in the handbook compilation to foretell just how it will appear in every detail.

Bulletins and Publicity. The Public Service Commission Library issues a bulletin once or twice a week containing references to books, articles and pamphlets. We issue a sheet

regularly twice a week, dated for Tuesdays and Fridays, containing only references to periodical literature. The Tuesday sheet covers civil, electrical and mechanical engineering; the Friday sheet railways and all else that may be of interest to us. The sheets circulating throughout the office are marked substantially as in the case of the Public Service Commission and, likewise, we call attention to articles that may be of particular interest to particular persons. These semi-weeklies would seem to stimulate the use of the library, as indicated by the requests for articles referred to. Outsiders who receive the lists seldom ask us for or about the references, and we hardly know to what extent they are actually appreciated. When, however, for some five months the service was abandoned we had several letters to the effect that it was decidedly missed.

Reference Lists. Because we do not keep our periodical and our book list as one, we cannot make reference lists with the same ease as the Public Service Commission Library, though the handbook to which I have alluded would in itself be a series of reference lists; and if this should be edited annually or maintained by an interleaved or loose-leaved system, it should become a most important feature of our Library.

Blue Print Methods. The blue print lists of the Public Service Commission, maintained to date, are a novelty to me, and I should think they would be most useful. I hope Dr. Whitten will report on this several months hence, so that if the experiment proves all that he anticipates we, too, may unhesitatingly adopt the system. Besides keeping the additions to date, he can also make obliterations to date, as possibly called for by the superseding of references that have been listed.

Collection of Information. Our Library seldom compiles data on various subjects, not only because we have so much else on hand, but more especially because the statistical and other departments, with their "students," do considerable work of this kind.

Record of Questions. A matter that Dr. Whitten does not touch upon is the recording of questions; who asked them, who answered them, how long it took to answer them, and where the information was found. Our classified collection of question slips makes a stock-in-trade reference bureau, which,

to my mind, is of great value, and should prove of greater and greater value. It is my hope to see the headquarters of the Special Libraries Association build up a bureau of this kind, so that it shall indeed become the information center for specialists of all kinds. But this is far beyond the modest achievement that the S. L. A. aspires to for the present.

Quick Service. Quick service is indeed called for and rightfully expected. We need to realize that not only are we library workers, but that we are office workers, and that the department as a whole is merely incidental to the work of the engineers, financiers and general managers of public utilities.

REFERENCE LIBRARY IN A MANUFACTURING PLANT

The library of the H. H. Franklin company, an automobile-manufacturing concern in Syracuse, N.Y. is described in *Special Libraries* by Miss Laura E. Babcock, its librarian. There were very few libraries of this type when it was founded in 1909, and no accounts precede this article which was revised from a report which she made to the Committee on Education of the Syracuse Chamber of Commerce. An interesting characteristic of the library is its use of the Dewey classification as adapted for engineering industries by the University of Illinois.

The idea of establishing a commercial library as a department of a business house, and especially of a manufacturing plant, was still comparatively in its infancy at the time the Franklin Reference Library was established in February, 1909. The only business library of a purely reference character of which any account could be found at the time, either printed or through correspondence, was the library connected with Stone & Webster of Boston.

The H. H. Franklin Manufacturing Company, of Syracuse, New York, is engaged in two industries—the making of Franklin automobiles and the manufacture of die castings, the latter being the original business of the company, automobiles being added in 1902. The number of employes averages between 1,800 and 2,000, including the office force of about 300. At the time the librarian was engaged there was no general library, although a nucleus for such a library existed in a collection of about 75 books and a number of periodicals located in the engineering department, about 115 books in the legal department, and a few other scattered books. The advertising department was receiving a large number of periodicals and newspapers which, after being clipped for advertising or publicity material, were distributed about the offices as desired. The

company also subscribed for a few technical periodicals, which were handled in the same way.

The library was started in a small way, and was located temporarily at one end of the large advertising room. In order to call the attention of the heads of departments and others to the library, and to secure their interest and co-operation, official memos. were sent out from time to time, stating its object and aims, wherein it could be of service to them, and each new development. At the end of three weeks interest began to awaken, and from that time on the work of the library and the demands upon it steadily increased. In November a trained librarian was engaged as assistant librarian, making with the stenographer a staff of three. In January, 1910, about 2,000 catalogs were taken over from the engineering, manufacturing and other departments in an unindexed state—the several indexes the departments had attempted to maintain having dropped so far behind that they were practically useless—and a fourth assistant was added to take care of this work and to assist in other lines.

In the meantime the library had outgrown its original quarters, moved into a large office, in turn being crowded out of that, and at present occupies one of the small cottages used as annexes to the offices, this cottage having been altered to meet the needs of the library. When a new office building is constructed space will be reserved for suitable library quarters, to be well equipped with modern appliances.

The library was established as a technical reference library for the use of the departmental offices, but may be used by all employes of the company for reference purposes. Its aim is to supply all literature or information of any kind bearing upon the work of any department. In addition to the resources within itself, material and information are frequently obtained through the Syracuse Public Library, the Syracuse University Library and the Technology Club of Syracuse, from firms in town by telephone, and from out-of-town sources by correspondence.

Possibly one might infer that the information required in an automobile plant would relate only or chiefly to technical automobile subjects. In order to realize how erroneous such an idea would be, one must know that the library serves not only the engineering department, with its chemical and

mechanical laboratories and metallurgist, and the manufacturing department with its divisions, but also the executive, accounting, costs, sales, sundry, advertising, printing, purchasing, legal, die-casting and commercial car departments, the latter being independent of the pleasure car departments.

The library is not circulating, but books and back numbers of periodicals may be withdrawn for home use when desired over night, and between 12 m. Saturday and 8 a. m., Monday. The only work of a popular nature which is undertaken is the loaning of popular magazines received gratis through the advertising department. These may be borrowed for home reading by any employe of the company for a period not to exceed four days. The library may also be used for recreative reading during the noon hour, as well as for reference. The library is open from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m., Saturdays 8 a.m. to 12 m. Tables are provided for readers, and assistance freely rendered to make all material available.

The reference work of the library is varied and interesting, including questions upon industrial and economic conditions, statistics, correct English, biography, mathematics, education, etc., besides the more technical engineering problems. No regular record is kept of requests received for information, except those requiring more or less extended research, although such requests are frequently noted in order to keep in touch with the character of the demands. Side by side with requests for material upon the length of bore and stroke of foreign cars, dimensions of torque or rear axle, theory and design of centrifugal pumps and fans, stresses and strains in transmission gears, hardening processes and strength of material of aluminum alloy, co-efficient of expansion of nickel-iron alloys, foreign motor rating formulas, and cam design, appear questions relating to employers' liability, production cost, shop management. technical and industrial education, apprenticeship schools in the United States and Europe, ambulance equipment, ventilation, flaming arc lamp, list of foreign ambassadors, employes' savings banks, building and loan associations, insurance, and height of Mt. Wilson, Arizona.

The number of volumes at present is about 1,125, including pamphlets. Special collections of books are located in the legal and engineering departments, chemical laboratory, etc., only works of a general character and bibliographical and

reference works being retained in the library. Very few technical books are purchased, and as a rule only the most recent editions, as constant investigation and research often makes an engineering book out of date before it is printed. Pamphlet literature and public documents, however, are often valuable assets. There is a collection of about 4,200 trade catalogs, including 1,000 catalogs from competing automobile firms in America and Europe.

The best sources of information, however, are periodicals. Of these the library receives altogether about 235, a large number being received gratis through the advertising department, including trade papers and popular magazines, in addition to which the company at present subscribes for 78 periodicals of a technical nature. Many of the trade and technical periodicals are duplicated, in some instances several times. Newspapers are still taken care of by the advertising department, a few leading papers being kept on file in the library.

All periodicals are received at the library direct from the mailing table, and are there checked up and marked for routeing to individuals or departments. As many copies are often received, or a single copy sent from one department to another, a special method of checking has been devised which is very simple but has proven quite satisfactory. Before distributing, a routeing slip is pasted on the cover of each periodical, with columns for names of persons, "clipping page," "reference page" (for articles the reader would like to have clipped or indexed in library), "date forwarded" and "remarks." The periodicals then pass to the advertising department for noting and clipping of advertising material, from which they pass to the messenger service for distribution.

All periodicals are reviewed by the librarian and checked for indexing. In order to avoid duplication of work, technical articles which are listed in printed indexes are not usually indexed, although articles which are of immediate interest to any individual or department are indexed when received, and are then referred to the person or persons interested. In addition to technical articles, which include the work of all departments, everything is indexed relating to the automobile industry from an economic standpoint—trade and financial conditions in the United States and foreign countries, collectively by firms, exports and imports, automobile statistics, etc.

In order to meet a demand for condensed information on matters relating to the trade, and to bring together the items published during a week upon a given subject, a digest or resume was attempted of the automobile industry as culled from periodical literature. This was issued weekly, copies being distributed to several heads of departments. The attempt was merely to bring out the salient points of immediate interest, followed by title of periodical, date, page, length of article (pages, columns or paragraphs) and whether illustrated. Technical articles relating to individual firms were briefly noted, in order to bring together all material relating to a given firm. This resume was briefly indexed, enabling one to get all material on a given subject at a minute's notice, without the necessity of consulting a large number of periodicals. If fuller information was desired the article itself could be produced. The resume seemed to be much appreciated, but was discontinued at the end of six months, more urgent work demanding the time spent upon it.

The current periodicals are taken care of at present in a somewhat different manner than is usual. There was originally no room for magazine racks, the shelving space was limited, and the periodicals had to be kept on open shelves in a large room. A neat filing box was therefore devised as a temporary arrangement, but has proven exceptionally satisfactory and easy to consult. The periodicals are kept clean and unrumpled and occupy from a half to a third less space than if they were laid in piles on the shelves. These periodical boxes were made by a local firm. They are similar to pamphlet boxes with open backs, and are covered with a good quality of black pebble paper. They are in three sizes, 10 inches by 7 inches by 3 inches, 13 inches by 11 inches by 4½ inches and 16 inches by 12½ inches by 4½ inches outside dimensions, the larger sizes being made entirely of thin boards, the smallest size having double pressed pasteboard sides.

Many of the periodicals are kept on file in the departments for immediate reference, especially in the engineering department, thus forming with the books so kept a branch departmental library. All other periodicals are returned to the library files as soon as read. Twice a year completed volumes are called in for binding, but only those which have permanent value for reference work are bound, in all about twenty-eight

titles. Other periodicals which have a temporary value are retained for a time in an unbound form, duplicate copies and material of an ephemeral nature being distributed to the men throughout the factory or "junked." One copy of every periodical received, however, is kept on file for advertising reference. In a few instances, where magazines are in much demand for reference work, sets have been completed as far back as 1900 or 1905.

Much of the pamphlet literature which is received, including government publications, has permanent value, and it is desirable to preserve this in permanent form. For this purpose the Gaylord pamphlet binder is used, cut to the desired size, the cover of the pamphlet being pasted on the front of the binder. This saves the expense of binding, and yet preserves the pamphlet permanently and in better form than the manila envelope. Pamphlets having only temporary value are filed in pamphlet boxes.

The question of a classification which would adequately meet the needs of the engineering and automobile material was for quite a time a mooted one. The final decision, however, was in favor of the Dewey decimal classification, modified, supplemented by the "Extension of the Dewey classification as applied to Engineering Industries," published by the Engineering Experiment Station of the University of Illinois, this in turn supplemented by an automobile classification presented by Mr. Henry Hess before the Society of Automobile Engineers, and published in "Horseless Age," August 25, 1909.

An account of this library would not be complete without mentioning our method of caring for trade catalogs, as large business and manufacturing firms often find this class of literature most troublesome to handle. Our method is quite simple. At the time a request is sent the name of the firm is entered on a card, and above this is penciled the date of the letter and the name of the person or department desiring the catalog. This card is filed alphabetically under the heading "Catalogs ordered." When the catalog is received, this card is removed from the "Catalogs ordered" list, title or titles and class number added, and the card filed in the index list of trade catalogs. Subject cards are made, and the catalog is labeled and forwarded to the party for whom it was obtained. If no reply is received, or the firm does not issue catalogs or the

edition is exhausted, these facts are noted and the card filed for future reference.

The system of numbering adopted is the Cutter-Sanborn author numbers, by means of which catalogs are filed in strictly alphabetical order by firms. A classed arrangement by subjects undoubtedly has advantages over this method, but requires more time and skill in classifying, and separates the several publications of a firm. It is believed the brief subject cards take the place of grouping the material by subjects. Catalogs are filed in a specially designed Caldwell cabinet, disregarding the one, two, three fixed number scheme which accompanies the regular cabinet.

An interesting feature of the work has been the collecting and arranging of Franklin literature. This includes all catalogs, booklets, circulars, leaflets, bulletins, etc., arranged chronologically, thus forming a literary history of the company beginning with its earliest publications.

FUNCTION OF LIBRARIES

FUNCTION OF THE LIBRARY

The name of Salome Cutler Fairchild is so inextricably linked with the progress of libraries in this country that it seems especially fitting to close with a word from her which truly, for all time, expresses the purpose for which libraries are organized and administered. A sketch of Mrs. Fairchild is in Volume 2.

Some movements begin with a philosophy, others with an enthusiasm. It is fortunate that the modern library movement began with an enthusiasm. If the men who in 1876 founded the American Library Association had, as a body of students, formulated a library philosophy, society might have waited till far into the twentieth century for the working of its influence. Because they were men possessed of an enthusiasm, and with the magic power of communicating that enthusiasm, the library idea was translated rapidly into practice, and today we have a library activity which is recognized by those outside our ranks as a movement, and which Thomas Wentworth Higginson compares to the cathedral-building impulse of the thirteenth century.

We have no reason to find fault with our past, but I believe it is time for us to have as the foundation for our library enthusiasm a library philosophy, by which I mean a carefully thought out and adequately expressed statement of the fundamentals of library science. We need a philosophy, not to take the place of enthusiasm, but to support and strengthen and keep alive enthusiasm. Thomas Davidson says of the Reformation: It was a considerable time before the movement became sufficiently conscious of its own meaning and presuppositions to give them conscious expression in a philosophy: and until this is done no movement can display its whole strength or proceed securely. [History of education, p. 197.] If Mr. Davidson is correct in his analysis the statement applies equally to the library movement. Such a formulation of prin-

ciples might save us from the faddish and one-sided development which thoughtful librarians deplore, would help us to a perfect correlation of the various types of libraries, and secure from all library workers respect for the work of each other type. I offer a single sentence as a slight contribution to a library philosophy which will, if it is needed, be built up gradually by the united work of many thinkers.

The function of the library as an institution of society is the development and enrichment of human life in the entire community by bringing to all the people the books that belong to them.

If it were possible to be sure that the word education would be understood in its broadest sense, we might say that the function of the library is the education of the entire community. There is, however, too great risk that the word education will be understood in its more restricted sense of the formal, systematic training extending from the kindergarten to the university.

I should like to make more vivid my conception of the meaning of the words "the development and enrichment of life" by a few stories of results in life which are brought about by the use of the library. All but one of them fell within my actual knowledge, and are reports of fact. One is imaginary, but I believe has often been realized.

A home library was put into the house of a hard-working German baker. One of his sons was a member of the little group of children. About two years later the mother said to the home library visitor, I want to give a dollar for the support of the library because the books do so much good to the children. Perhaps you don't see it, for you only come once a week; I am here all the time and I know. There's my boy, he is going to enter the high school. We wanted our older boys to go to school longer, but they did not want to, and Max would have been just the same if he hadn't read these books; that put it into his head to go to school longer. And so the German baker's wife gave her hard-earned dollar to buy more home libraries, and the next year she gave another dollar. I saw the boy's picture as captain of the baseball team of the high school, a fine, manly looking fellow. The high school gave Max an ambition to go to college. Through the influence of friends a scholarship was obtained, and he is

now a student in one of our older colleges. Max will get added satisfaction out of life, and if his future course is rightly shaped, the community will be bettered in every way by his developed life. Society cannot afford to leave dormant, powers which might be trained to do a higher grade of work. It is probable that Max was made of finer stuff than his older brothers, but you could never convince his mother that the home library did not make all the difference. We can agree with her that without the library he would never have gone to college.

The Altruria public library undertook systematically to do what had been done in part by many libraries, notably by the Worcester public library. It bought books in the interest of every trade and occupation followed in the city, and gave special and appropriate invitations to workers in each industry to avail themselves of the opportunity of perfecting themselves in their work by using these books. Something like the following has, no doubt, happened more than once. The carpenter's trade was represented among others. The men in a large shop received one payday, in their money envelopes, invitations to inspect the books on carpentry in the branch of the public library nearest their work and homes. The invitation was worded in such a way as to pique the curiosity and appeal to each man's sense of his own importance. There was a moderate response on the part of the men. One man whose home happened to be particularly unattractive, and who was too unsocial in his disposition to care much for the saloon, fell into the habit of spending all his evenings in the public library. After a time he read through the books on carpentry originally provided, and others were bought especially for his use. He gradually came to take a more enlightened interest in his work in the shop. The quality of his work improved, and within a couple of years he was promoted from his position as common carpenter to that of master carpenter. When it became noised about that this man's wages were advanced because he used the public library, more men from that shop began to frequent the library. Not having his natural aptitude or his powers of close application, they did not all get an advance in wages.

One of them did not take much to books on carpentry; he had enough of that during the day, he said. He used to hang

around the political economy alcove of an evening and of a Sunday afternoon. He read Adam Smith and Ricardo and Henry George and Mill and Sumner and Walker. His mental apprehension of what it all meant was very vague. If he had been forced to pass an examination on the subject, the result would have been ludicrous. But the reading habit developed in adult life tended to increase his self-respect, and from the confusion of conflicting theories and scientific terms he did get clearly the idea that a working man who is the master of a good trade has a better chance in the struggle for existence than one without. His boy was drifting about the city doing all sorts of odd jobs, and he did not see how he could afford to feed and clothe him two or three years longer while he learned a trade. But as he kept on reading, the sense of his obligation to give his own child a good start in life grew upon him, and the man actually gave up his pipe for three years, until his task of giving the boy a trade was accomplished.

This man's wife, from her novel and her volume on domestic economy, got the notion of taking more pains with making her bread, of keeping her cellar clean, and of having a prettier parlor for her daughter's sake. The raising of ideals in standards of living is of great service in social development.

A young woman of my acquaintance, who is bookkeeper in a village store, with a comfortable home but a somewhat restricted social life, and close, painstaking attention to her ledger and daybook tending to restricted interests, took as the companion of her short summer vacation Mrs Dana's, How to know the wild flowers. As I watched her use it I had a revelation of the new world such a book may open up. She delighted in the exactness of scientific description, even enjoying the use of the glossary. She went back to her bookkeeping with freshened interest and more spirit in life from her acquaintance with the wild flowers. In this case the gain comes not from new facts learned, but from the broadening out of experience, the uplifting of a narrow horizon.

Here is another true story. The adventures of Sherlock Holmes, by sharpening the wits in imitation-suggestion, helped a man to find a difficult trail in the woods and save the party of friends with him from spending the night on the mountain.

A friend told me that a wise mother of her acquaintance had been reading aloud to her somewhat self-willed boy of five years Kipling's Jungle books. She found to her surprise

that these stories were proving her most effectual means of controlling the child. Being a woman of natural insight, and of psychological training, she was able to find the reason. The child seemed from the first to get the suggestion of law and obedience which runs through the stories and which is crystallized in the Law of the jungle.

Now these are the laws of the jungle, and many and mighty are they;
But the head and the hoof of the law, and the haunch and the hump is—obey.

The association in the child's mind of his own life with the life of the jungle was so strong that the law actually seemed to him to apply to his own conduct. The book may serve this double purpose also for the adult—satisfy the human instinct for a good story and give a strong and healthy push toward law and order and obedience in the whole of life.

Uncle Tom's cabin has doubtless been the most potent of all influences in rousing to action the sentiment of sympathy for the enslaved. Kipling's Absent-minded beggar opens hearts and loosens purse-strings for the man who ignores all moral obligations except the duty to fight for his country.

Edward Everett Hale's Man without a country, makes everybody who reads it realize the joy of sharing in the national life of a civilized country. The white man's burden gives us a sense of belonging to the world-life.

In distributing all these books the library is not in any formal way teaching carpentry, or political economy, or botany, or morality. It is simply setting free and directing into wise channels forces which shall naturally play their part in broadening and unifying life, in giving it purity and beauty and sweetness.

The cultivation of the imagination, the fancy, the sense of humor, of the sympathetic nature, as Mr Larned so aptly puts it, "the whole conscious contentment of the absorbing mind," is a real gain for the individual and for society. Read some evening MacManus' In chimney corners, with its pure fun and rollicking Irish humor, and see if work doesn't go smoother "the day" and the world seem a sweeter, wholesomer place to live in.

If the book, circulated through the library, enlarges the experience, raises ideals, stimulates the mental powers, increases the capacity for enjoyment, then the library is working power-

fully and permanently for the development and enrichment of human life.

Returning to the thought that the purpose of the library is bringing to all the people the books that belong to them, I should like to emphasize for a moment the phrase "all the people," not for the sake of dwelling on the democratic ideal of the library, which is commonly acknowledged and which is a very old story, but to correct what seems to me the mistake of considering the library as a big philanthropic effort for the unprivileged, for the unfit and the delinquent. The object of the library is to bring to all the people the books that belong to them. The scholar has at least an equal claim with the vagrant. The shop girl, the mechanic, the unskilled laborer, the children of the slum districts, have a right to our philanthropic effort, and may require more of our time because it is hard to gain insight into their life; but we should not fail to acknowledge the claims of the well-to-do, the society girl, the business man, of the real student in any line of investigation, and when we are buying expensive books for the student, or making an elaborate catalog, or spending hours of time in reference work, we are not simply giving him his share which is his right, we are working through him for the good of the whole community. The scientific man, the inventor, the honest investigator in any line, however selfish his personal motive, cannot work for himself alone; his labor after it has found expression must bear fruit for the common welfare, and so, most truly, in helping him, we are fulfilling the purpose of the library. We must have, therefore, to furnish reading facilities for the leaders of the community, strong reference departments in the public library, reference libraries, college libraries and special subject libraries like the great medical collection of the surgeon-general's office.

Perhaps I should make clearer what is meant by the expression, the books that belong to them. We have a little neighbor about 12 years old, whose father is a bookkeeper of average education, but very fond of reading. He was distressed because the boy hated to go to school and disliked reading, and he tried to coax him by giving him books. As a student of library work for children I studied the boy and brought him home books that are usually alluring to children, but it was of no avail. He had only one characterization for all stories—lies. I found by watching him that he was of a

mechanical turn of mind and that his play consisted in making toys, boats that would float, and wagons to which he would harness his dog and ride to the grocery to do his mother's errands. He spent his pocket money in material to make these toys. He had a Christmas present last year which began to show him the possibilities of electricity for running toys. I brought him a book on electricity recommended by an expert and by a boy friend of mine who is interested in electricity. This time instead of calling on the boy and offering the book I left it on our study table. Presently he dropped in, took up the book and asked if he might not take it home. We said we might want to use it and he went out to play. In about an hour he came in again and began to read the book. He could not keep away from that book any more than a moth can keep away from a candle. He read it and made things out of it and asked his father to buy the book. Now when he comes in to show us a new toy that he has made, the little book on electricity is always under his arm. For the first time in his life he had found out that there was something inside the covers of a book that related to his life and interest. The book on electricity belongs to this boy in a very real sense.

One of the earliest and most important parts of the work in the public library is to show ordinary everyday people that it is for their interest and pleasure to receive ideas and suggestions from books as well as from people and the external world. An educated man was talking with a farmer of the old type about a mutual acquaintance and the educated man said: Mr So and So has a great deal of talent, hasn't he? The old farmer said: Talent, no; he ain't got no talent except for books. I am in the habit of taking home to my maid of all work a novel and a book on domestic economy. I took home Larned's The hostess of to-day, and having occasion to use it myself went into the kitchen and found it had been lent to a neighbor. She had come into the house, and seeing the book, thought it might be of help in planning for a party. When she returned it she was very much surprised to find Lemcke's Preserving and pickling on the kitchen table. It was a new thought to her that there were books written aside from the ordinary cook book on such special subjects as preserving and entertaining. She said she was going to tell her husband that there might be books in the library

which had to do with his business, that of a shoe manufacturer.

At a session of a library conference, a wide-awake and enthusiastic librarian said to me that a policeman dropped into his library one day and he asked him if he didn't want something to read. Oh, no, said the policeman, I never read anything except newspapers. The librarian took down a volume of the penal code and offered it to him. The policeman took it away with a good deal of interest.

In order to bring to people the books that belong to them we must know people and we must know the books. It is a common mistake to put the books first. We go about it usually in this way. We gather into the library books which we think people ought to read, and spend our energy in persuading them to accept that for which they have no particular desire, and which somehow does not touch their lives and interests. Some librarians speak enthusiastically of the common plan of buying books relating to the special industry of the town. Others say it is a beautiful theory, but the books are read by only a few people. It is quite justifiable to buy the books for the sake of the few ambitious people who will read them, but what is the explanation that they are read by so few? It does not follow that a man is exceedingly interested in the particular occupation by which he earns his bread. Find out in what he is interested. It may be swimming, baseball or photography. Give him a good book on that subject, whatever it is, and he will be quite likely to read it. We are right in line through the development of the branch library idea to get acquainted with people in such a way as to understand their motives, to find out what they are really interested in and to serve them with books in a practical and successful way.

I cannot emphasize too strongly the necessity that the librarian should be a careful student of his own city, of his own constituency, or of his own district, if he is a branch librarian. He should know the history, topography, the social and political, literary and ecclesiastical life. To this end he should have a personal acquaintance with the city officers, party bosses, labor leaders, reporters, policemen and reformers, members of the board of trade, manufacturers, leading women in society, with the school superintendent and teachers, and with those who control the charitable organizations. To what end? Broadly, that he may catch the spirit of the civic life and properly relate

the library to his community; specifically, that he may reach the entire population through the natural leaders who will catch his spirit, spread his idea of the library and multiply his work a thousand-fold. He must know how to judge people, to understand their motives. He must not only have a trained mind, he must know life.

Just here a word as to the stress that is always laid on the necessity for executive ability in the librarian. I would not for a moment undervalue this indispensable qualification, but I would give it the right perspective. The manufacturer who studies to reduce the cost of producing a yard of cotton by the fraction of a cent, does it not as an end in itself, but to save the margin of profit and thus accomplish the real object of his business—to make money in that particular line of industry. So the librarian cuts off useless expenditure of time, plans his catalog, his bookkeeping system, arranges his schedule of hours, sees to it that an expensive assistant shall not do the work that could be done by a cheap clerk, not considering these things the essence of library effort, but rather a means to the economical utilization of his library forces to accomplish the purpose of bringing to all the people the books that belong to them for pleasure or service.

The person who directs the library, who makes the plans and communicates his spirit to the institution, must be an educator in the large sense of the word. He must have a sane and intelligent and sympathetic appreciation of social movements and the power of shaping methods to accomplish spiritual ends. It is, therefore, evident that the man or woman who has only business instincts and ability cannot help the library to fulfill its function. In a little sketch of Eugene Field, Francis Wilson says of him that he loved books so much that all his friends and acquaintances caught the contagion. Such, if I mistake not, must be the spirit of the librarian. If books are not to us a precious possession we cannot make them seem precious to other people. If we understand the community interests and needs, if we know our books thoroughly and love them genuinely, we can bring to all the people the books that belong to them. If all the books reach their natural audience, the library will surely be doing its part, working in harmony with other forces, in the development and enrichment of human life.

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